SPEECH FUNCTION OF DIRECTIVE IN *CARS 3* MOVIE (2017)

REFERENCE

Submitted to the School of Foreign Language – JIA as a partial fulfillment of requirements for the undergraduate degree in English Literature Programme

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2024

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

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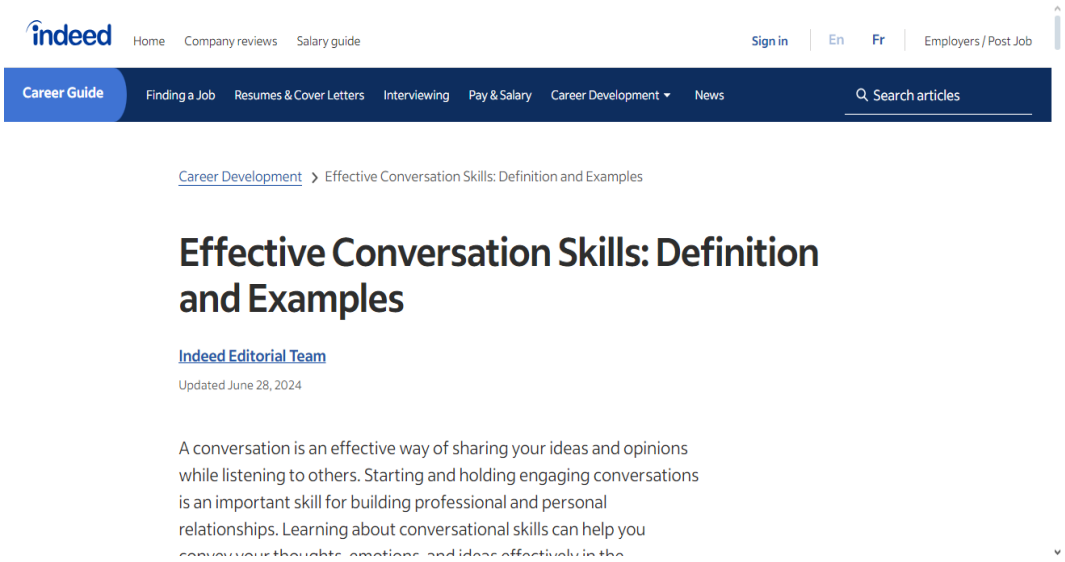

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Communication

Communication skills allow you to convey and receive information effectively. It involves sharing your thoughts, emotions, and observations with others. Possessing strong communication skills can help you express yourself, understand others, and respond accurately during conversations. Understanding whom you're talking to can help you choose the right words during conversations. Consider taking communication skill training courses to help you improve your communication skills.

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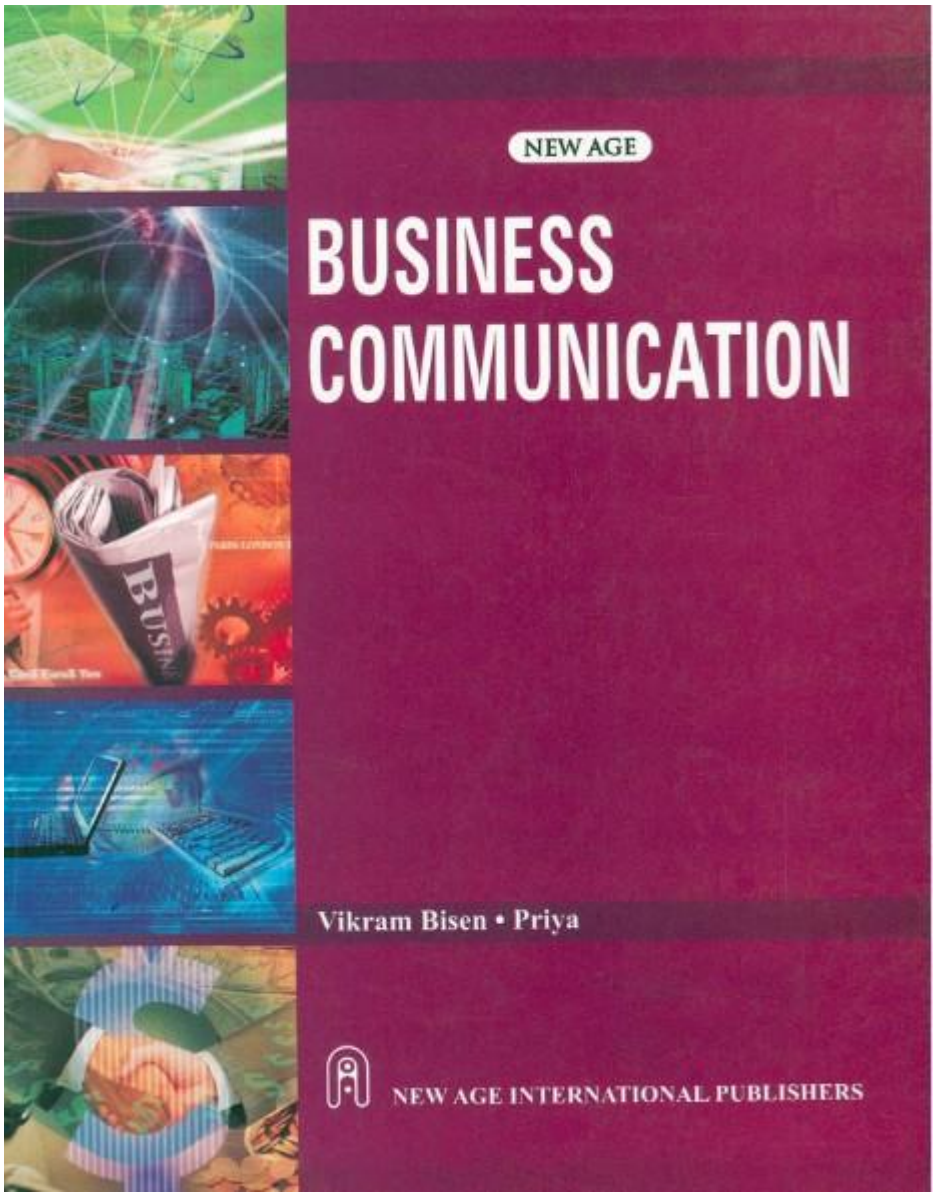

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persons. All such communication impacts business. Done with care, such communication can promote business interests. Otherwise, it will portray the organization in poor light and may adversely affect the business interest.

Communication is the life blood of any organization and its main purpose is to effect change to influence action. In any organization the main problem is of maintaining effective communication process. The management problem generally results in poor communication. Serious mistakes are made because orders are misunderstood. The basic problem in communication is that the meaning which is actually understood may not be what the other intended to send. It must be realised that the speaker and the listener are two separate individuals having their own limitations and number of things may happen to distort the message that pass between them.

When people within the organization communicate with each other, it is internal communication. They do so to work as a team and realise the common goals. It could be official or unofficial. Modes of internal communication include face-to-face and written communication. Memos, reports, office order, circular, fax, video conferencing, meeting etc. are the examples of internal communication.

When people in the organization communicate with anyone outside the organization it is called external communication. These people may be clients or customers, dealers or distributors, media, government, general public etc. are the examples of external communication.

- Communication is the life blood of the business. No business can develop in the absence of effective communication system.
- Communication is the mortar that holds an organization together, whatever its business or its size.
- When people within the organization communicate with each other, it is internal communication and when people in the organization communicate with anyone outside the organization it is called external communication.
- Ability to work well in teams, to manage your subordinates and your relationship with seniors, customers and colleagues depends on your communication skill.

Exhibit 1

1.3 DEFINITIONS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication may be defined as interchange of thought or information between two or more persons to bring about mutual understanding and desired action. It is the information exchange by words or symbols. It is the exchange of facts, ideas and viewpoints which bring about commonness of interest, purpose and efforts.

American Management Association defines, 'Communication is any behaviour that results in an exchange of meaning'.

Peter Little defines communication as, 'Communication is the process by which information is transmitted between individuals and/or organizations so that an understanding response result'.

Newman and Summer Jr. state that, 'Communication is an exchange of facts, ideas, opinions or emotions by two or more persons'.

According to *Keith Davis*, 'The process of passing the information and understanding from one person to another. It is essentially a bridge of meaning between the people. By using the bridge a person can safely across the river of misunderstanding'.

2

COMMUNICATION AND ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE

2.1 FORMS OF COMMUNICATION
2.1.1 FORMAL COMMUNICATION
2.1.2 GRAPEVINE/INFORMAL COMMUNICATION
2.2 BARRIERS OF COMMUNICATION
2.3 PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION
2.4 GATEWAYS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION
2.5 SEVEN Cs OF COMMUNICATION
2.5.1 SEVEN Cs OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATION
2.5.2 SEVEN Cs OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

2.1 FORMS OF COMMUNICATION

Communication is divided into external and internal communication. External communications are those communications which are occurring outside the organization like communication with other companies, with government, general public etc. Internal communications are those which are inside the organization. Internal communications are further divided into two parts, formal or official and informal.

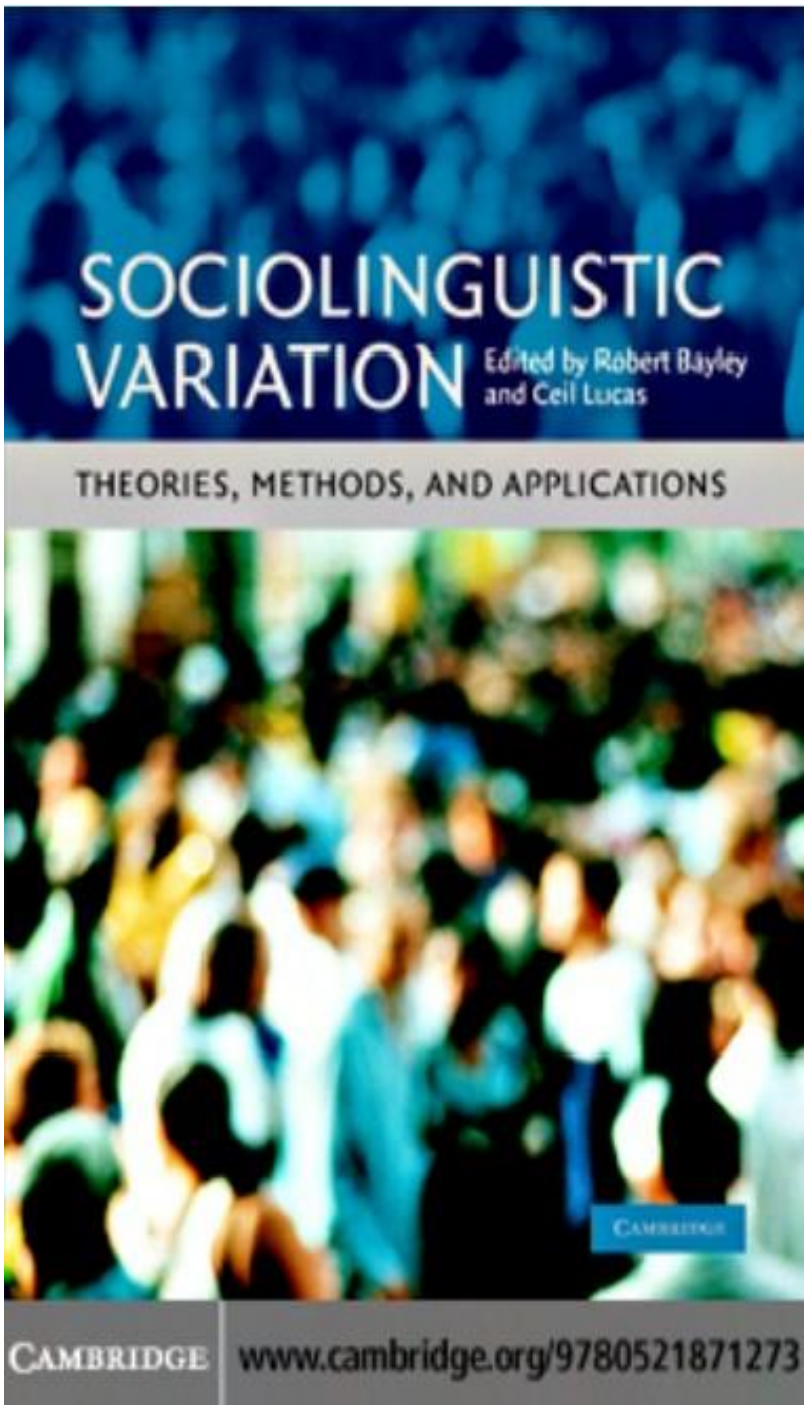
- **Formal:** Formal communication flows along prescribed channels which all members desirous of communicating with one another are obliged to follow.
- **Informal:** Along with the formal channel of communication every organization has an equally effective channel of communication that is the informal channel often called grapevine, because it runs in all directions—Horizontal, Vertical, Diagonal. It flows around water cooler, down hallways, through lunch rooms and wherever people get together in groups.

2.1.1 Formal Communication

ADVANTAGES

1. It passes through line and authority and consequently ensures the maintenance of authority as well as accountability of the executives' in-charge.
2. It helps to develop intimate relations between immediate boss and his subordinates.
3. It keeps uniformity in the dissemination of information.

Baley, R., Lucas, C. (2007). *Sociolinguistic Variation: Theories, Method and Application*. Cambridge University Press.



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Introduction

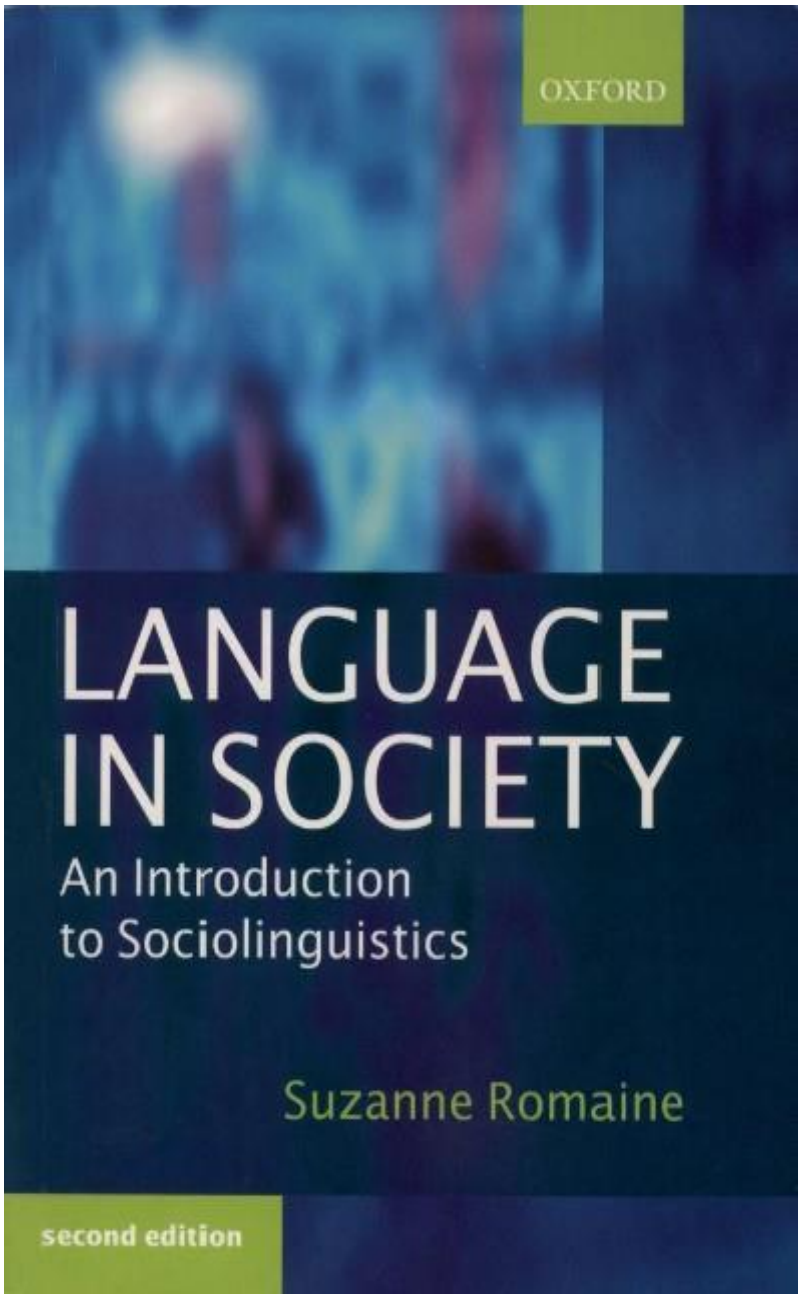
ROBERT BAYLEY AND CEIL LUCAS

Beginning with the pioneering work of Labov, Shuy, Fasold, and Wolfram in the mid and late 1960s, the study of variation has formed one of the key areas, if not the key area, of sociolinguistics. Alone among the various sociolinguistic subfields, the study of variation has been enriched by two regular conferences – New Ways of Analyzing Variation (NWAV), now in its 36th year, and, beginning in 2001, the International Conference on Language Variation in Europe (ICLaVE) – as well as by its own journal, *Language Variation and Change*. In recent years, conferences on language variation have also been held in England (VIEW 1998, VIEW 2000), and a sociolinguistics laboratory dedicated to the study of linguistic variation has been established at Nanjing University in China. Moreover, although the study of variation began with a focus on varieties of English, French, and Spanish, variationist studies now encompass many languages ranging from Guyanese and Jamaican Creoles to Brazilian Portuguese to Chinese to American Sign Language and Australian Sign Language. Variationist approaches have also met with considerable success in studies of second language acquisition. However, despite the prominence of variationist studies in North American sociolinguistics and, increasingly, in other areas of the world, most widely used textbooks in sociolinguistics devote only a chapter or two to the study of variation. Only one textbook in sociolinguistics, Chambers (2002), is devoted primarily to variation.

This volume brings together a group of contributors widely recognized for their contributions to variationist sociolinguistics with the purpose of providing accessible overviews of the major areas of concern for students of linguistic variation. And while the chapters in this volume make it very clear that we have come a very long way in over forty years of variationist studies, they also demonstrate that three fundamental facts about variationist studies remain constant: that the variation observed in real language use is systematic and its analysis can directly inform a number of theoretical frameworks about human language use; that the development of the study of real language use has been accompanied by the development of sophisticated methods of data collection and analysis tailored to the requirements of the study of variation; and that variationist studies have very frequently received their impetus from real human situations in the areas of education, employment, and the law, and that the results of variationist studies have had very tangible and important applications in all of these areas.

In the section of the volume on theory, variation is described as it has been studied in the areas of phonology (Guy), syntax (Green, Fasold and Preston), and

Romaine, S. (2000). *Language in Society: Introduction to Sociolinguistic*. Oxford University Press.



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Preface

MODERN linguistics has generally taken for granted that grammars are unrelated to the social lives of their speakers. Thus, linguists have usually treated language as an abstract object which can be accounted for without reference to social concerns of any kind. Sociologists, for their part, have tended to treat society as if it could be constituted without language. I have called this book *Language in Society*, which is what sociolinguistics is all about.

The term 'sociolinguistics' was coined in the 1950s to try to bring together the perspectives of linguists and sociologists to bear on issues concerning the place of language in society, and to address, in particular, the social context of linguistic diversity. Although it is still a young field of research, it gathered momentum in the 1960s and 1970s and continues to do so today. Educational and social policies played a role in the turning of linguists' attention to some of these questions, as did dissatisfaction with prevailing models of linguistics. Since the late 1950s mainstream linguistics has been conceived of as a largely formal enterprise increasingly divorced from the study of languages as they are actually used in everyday life.

Sociolinguistics has close connections with the social sciences, in particular, sociology, anthropology, social psychology, and education. It encompasses the study of multilingualism, social dialects, conversational interaction, attitudes to language, language change, and much more. It is impossible to put all the different approaches to the topic into neat pigeonholes, each of which is distinct in terms of methodology, goals, etc. There is considerable overlap, so that for instance, while dialectologists have studied speech varieties and language change, subjects of paramount interest to many sociolinguists, they have generally employed quite different methods of data collection and concentrated on rural rather than urban speech (see Chapter 5).

Different authors writing about what has now become a very broad field have divided it up in various ways. Some distinguish, for instance, between theoretical and applied sociolinguistics. The former is concerned with formal models and methods for analysing the structure of speech communities and speech varieties, and providing a general account of communicative competence. Applied sociolinguistics deals with the social and political implications of fundamental inequalities in language use in various areas of public life, e.g. schools or courts. A glance at the two-volume work *Sociolinguistics: An International Handbook of the Science of Language and Society* (1987–8, Mouton de Gruyter),

Cook, G. (1989). *Discourse*. Oxford University Press.

Language Teaching:
A Scheme for Teacher Education

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Discourse

Guy Cook

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The emotive function: communicating the inner states and emotions of the addresser ('Oh no!', 'Fantastic!', 'Ugh!', and swear words used as exclamations).
The directive function: seeking to affect the behaviour of the addressee ('Please help me!', 'Shut up!', 'I'm warning you!').
The phatic function: opening the channel or checking that it is working, either for social reasons ('Hello', 'Lovely weather', 'Do you come here often?'), or for practical ones ('Can you hear me?', 'Are you still there?', 'Can you see the blackboard from the back of the room?', 'Can you read my writing?').
The poetic function: in which the particular form chosen is the essence of the message. (The advertising slogan *BEANZ MEANZ HEINZ* would lose its point if it were paraphrased as 'If you are buying beans, you will naturally buy Heinz.')
The referential function: carrying information.
The metalinguistic function: focusing attention upon the code itself, to clarify it or renegotiate it ('What does this word here mean?', 'This bone is known as the "femur"', '"Will" and "shall" mean the same thing nowadays'). This book has a largely metalinguistic function.
The contextual function: creating a particular kind of communication ('Right, let's start the lecture', 'It's just a game').

Murni, M. S., Arista, D. S. (2014). *Language Functions Used by The Main Character in Sherlock Holmes II: A Game of Shadow*. Neliti. 82-95 https://www.neliti.com/publications/147926/language-functions-used-by-the-main-character-in-sherlock-holmes-ii-a-game-of-shadow.

LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS USED BY THE MAIN CHARACTER IN *SHERLOCK HOLMES II: A GAME OF SHADOWS* MOVIE

***Sri Devi Arista**

****Sri Minda Murni**

ABSTRACT

This research focused on language functions used by the main character in "Sherlock Holmes" movie. The aims were to find the use of language functions and describe the dominant types of language functions used in "Sherlock Holmes" movie. The data were the dialogue of the main character in "Sherlock Holmes" movie in the first forty minutes of the movie. The research was conducted by using descriptive qualitative research. The findings show that there are six types of language functions used by the main character in "Sherlock Holmes" movie. They are expressive, directive, referential, metalinguistic, phatic, and poetic. The most dominant type of language function is metalinguistic. It means that the main character conveys code analysis by asking questions to the people so that he might invent clue for the sake of his investigation.

Keyword : *Language Functions, Sherlock Holmes, Movie.*

---

*Graduate Status

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ExpressiveFunction

Expressive function means express the speaker's feelings. This function is oriented toward the addresser.

For examples:

1. What an excellent opportunity! (00:17:41)
2. I am! (00:16:53)

In the first data, Sherlock Holmes as the speaker tried to convey his emotion the addressee. Holmes felt surprised with the condition about the addressee's dog, so he maximized his volume which being included in paralinguistic features in the characteristics of expressive function.

The speaker used another exclamation word "I am!" to emphasize the content of the message to addressee. It was also followed by the use of mimicry and certain intonation which belong to paralinguistic features. That is way this function being categorized into expressive.

Directive Function

Directive function means attempt to get someone to do something. It is oriented toward the addressee.

For examples:

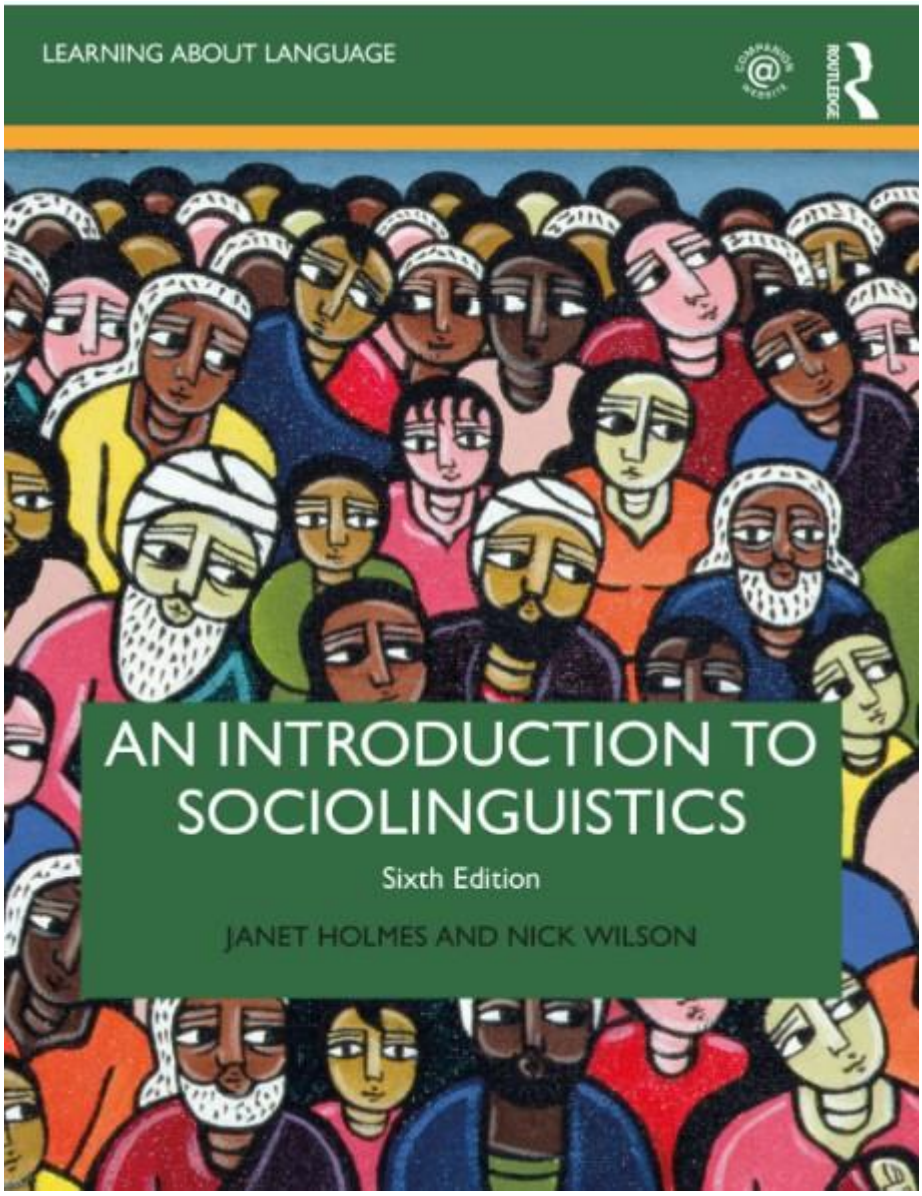
1. Come with me. (00:28:19)
2. Give me the wedding ring. (00:23:12)

The first data shows that Sherlock Holmes as the speaker used the directive function to attempt the addressee to follow his command.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL DEFINITION

Holmes, J., Wilson, N. (2022). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Rouletdge.



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1 What do sociolinguists study?

What is a sociolinguist?

Sociolinguists study the relationship between language and society. They are interested in explaining why we speak differently in different social contexts, and with identifying the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. Examining the way people use language in different social contexts provides a wealth of information about the way language works, as well as about the social relationships in a community, and how people convey and construct aspects of their social identity through their language. This book explores all these aspects of sociolinguistics.

Example 1

Ray: Hi mum.
Mum: Hi. You're late.
Ray: Yeah, that bastard Sootbucket kept us in again.
Mum: Nana's here.
Ray: Oh sorry. Where is she?

Ray's description of his teacher would have been expressed differently if he had realised his grandmother could hear him. The way people talk is influenced by the social context in which they are talking. It matters who can hear us and where we are talking, as well as how we are feeling. The same message may be expressed very differently to different people. We use different **styles** in different social contexts. Leaving school, Ray had run into the school principal.

Example 2

Ray: Good afternoon, sir.
Principal: What are you doing here at this time?
Ray: Mr Sutton kept us in, sir.

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The functions of speech

Example 1

Boss:	Good morning Sue. Lovely day.
Secretary:	Yes it's beautiful. Makes you wonder what we're doing here doesn't it.
Boss:	Mm, that's right. Look I wonder if you could possibly sort this lot out by ten. I need them for a meeting.
Secretary:	Yes sure. No problem.
Boss:	Thanks that's great.

This dialogue is typical of many everyday interactions in that it serves both an affective (or social) function and a referential (or informative) function. The initial greetings and comments on the weather serve a predominantly social function; they establish rapport between the two participants. The exchange then moves on to become more information-oriented or referential in function, though the social function of constructing an appropriate level of rapport and respect is still relevant. Chapter 1 described just these two broad functions of speech – the affective and the referential. It is possible, however, to distinguish a great variety of different functions which language serves.

There are a number of ways of categorising speech functions. The following list has proved a useful one in sociolinguistic research.

1. **Expressive** utterances express the speaker's feelings, e.g. *I'm feeling great today.*
2. **Directive** utterances attempt to get someone to do something, e.g. *Clear the table.*
3. **Referential** utterances provide information, e.g. *At the third stroke it will be three o'clock precisely.*
4. **Metalinguistic** utterances comment on language itself, e.g. *"Hegemony" is not a common word.*
5. **Poetic** utterances focus on aesthetic features of language, e.g. a poem, an ear-catching motto, a rhyme, *Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.*
6. **Phatic** utterances construct solidarity, rapport and empathy with others, e.g. *Hi, how are you, lovely day isn't it!*

Though we have provided a very brief indication of what the function labels mean, and an example of each in the form of a single utterance, it is important to remember that any utterance may in fact express more than one function, and any function may be served by a stretch of discourse which doesn't exactly coincide with an utterance.

The first three functions are recognised by many linguists, though the precise labels they are given may differ. They seem to be very fundamental functions

The directive function is concerned with getting people to do things. The speech acts which express directive force vary in strength. We can attempt to get people to sit down, for instance, by suggesting or inviting them to do so, or by ordering or commanding them to sit down. Orders and commands are speech acts which are generally expressed in imperative form. Polite attempts to get people to do something in English tend to use **interrogatives** or declaratives, as the following examples illustrate.

Sit down.	Imperative
You sit down.	*You* imperative
Could you sit down?	Interrogative with modal verb
Sit down will you?	Interrogative with tag
Won't you sit down?	Interrogative with negative modal
I want you to sit down.	Declarative
I'd like you to sit down.	Declarative
You'd be more comfortable sitting down.	Declarative

The list could go on and on. There are many ways of expressing this "sit down" directive. And although we can say that in general the interrogatives and declaratives are more polite than the imperatives, a great deal depends on intonation, tone of voice and context. A gentle *sit down* may be far more polite than a thundered *I want you all sitting down now.* In a shop, utterance (a) in example 4 will be considered normal, while (b) might well be regarded as sarcastic.

Example 4

(a) Box of matches.
(b) Could you possibly give me a box of matches?

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So clear-cut are the rules for classroom behaviour that it has been suggested that pupils operate with a very general rule of the form: "Scan every utterance of the teacher for directive intent." In other words, pupils consider everything the teacher says as a possible directive. New entrant Jason in example 8, however, has obviously not learned this rule yet, so his teacher's attempts to gently direct him to the appropriate behaviour are initially far too indirect.

Example 8

Teacher:	Jason, why have you got your raincoat on inside?
Jason:	*(Smiles)*
Teacher:	It's not raining inside.
Jason:	*(No response)*
Teacher:	What are you going to do about it?
Jason:	*(No response)*
Teacher:	Go and hang it up.

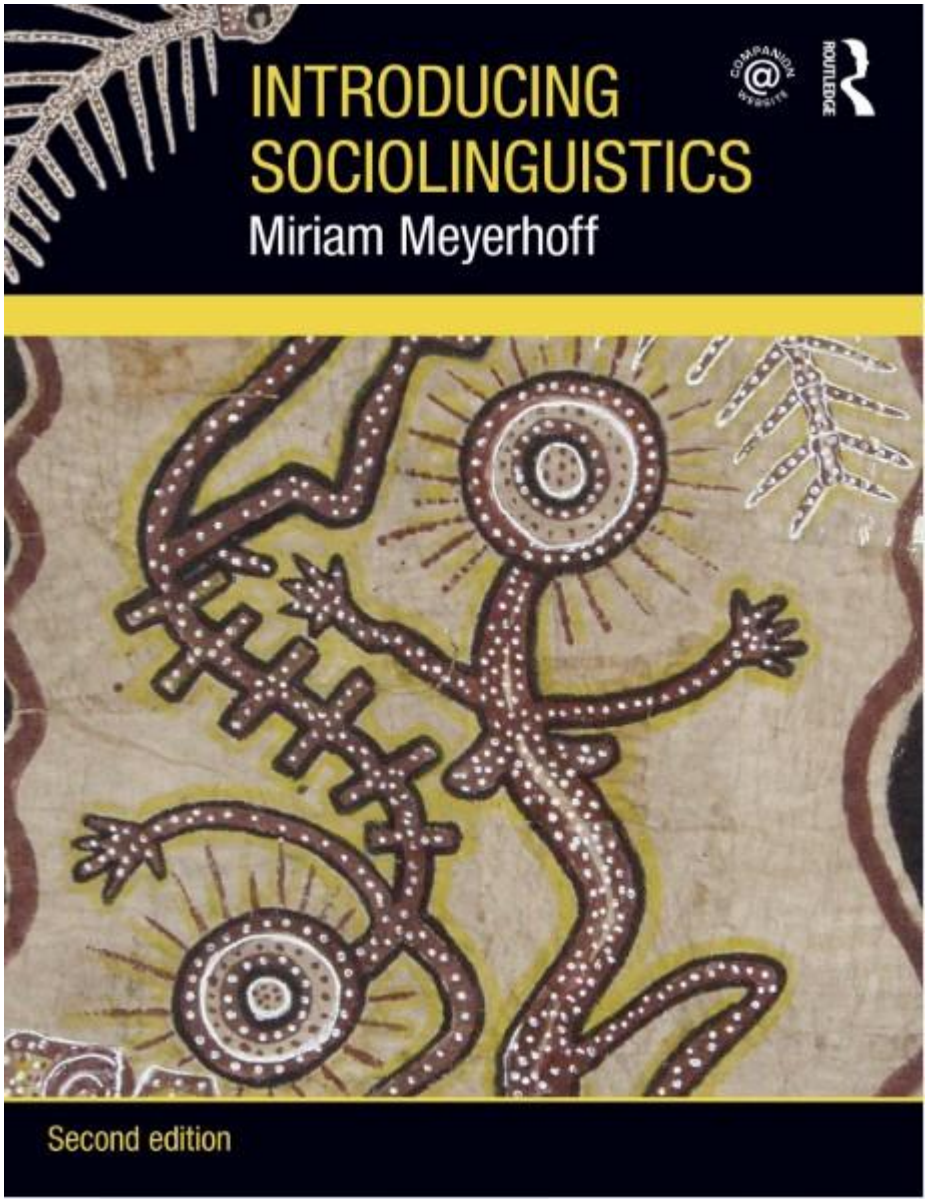
Formality and status may be very relevant in choosing an appropriate directive form. The choice of one form rather than another contributes to constructing these dimensions of interaction. At a graduation ceremony, the University Chancellor gave the Vice-Chancellor the directive in example 9.

Example 9

I now call on the Vice-Chancellor to read the citation for our distinguished guest.

The required action (*read the citation*) is embedded as a subordinate clause in the second part of the declarative sentence, and this is a common grammatical means of expressing directives less directly and more politely. A study which looked at the directives used between medical professionals in a meeting also demonstrated the influence of relative status on the form of directives in a formal setting. Imperatives were overwhelmingly used by superiors to those of subordinate status. The only imperatives used "upwards" were greeted with laughter, and regarded as humorous because they so clearly flouted this sociolinguistic rule. The general rule was that directives upwards were couched as indirect forms, such as modal interrogatives, as in example 10 (a). Others took the form of hints as illustrated by the exchange in example 10 (b).

Meyerhoff, M. (2011). *Introduction Sociolinguistics*. Rouletdge.



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Chapter 1

Introduction

WHAT IS SOCIOLINGUISTICS?

If I had a penny for every time I have tried to answer the question, 'So what *is* sociolinguistics?', I would be writing this book in the comfort of an early retirement. And if there was a way of defining it in one simple, yet comprehensive, sentence, there might not be a need for weighty introductory textbooks.

Sociolinguistics is a very broad field, and it can be used to describe many different ways of studying language. A lot of linguists might describe themselves as sociolinguists, but the people who call themselves sociolinguists may have rather different interests from each other and they may use very different methods for collecting and analysing data. This can be confusing if you are coming new to the field. Is sociolinguistics about how individual speakers use language? Is it about how people use language differently in different towns or regions? Is it about how a nation decides what languages will be recognised in courts or education?

The answer is: yes, yes, and yes. Sociolinguists conduct research on any of those topics. For example, if a speaker describes a funny or amusing situation as 'kicksin', I know they are from, or have spent a good deal of time in, the English-speaking Caribbean. I am drawing on sociolinguistic (social and linguistic) knowledge to draw this inference.

Or take the case of Jennifer, who grew up in a small traditionally fishing village in the north-east of Scotland, but spent many years teaching English in Greece. Jennifer can draw on a number of different styles or ways of speaking, depending on who she is talking to. If her interlocutor is a member of her family, she still uses a variety of Scots which is virtually incomprehensible to other native speakers of English. She says 'fit' instead of 'what'; 'nis' instead of 'don't'; 'doon' instead of 'down'; 'be'er' instead of 'better', and so forth. But in Greece she quickly learnt that she needed to adopt a less regionally marked way of speaking if her students were going to understand her, and when she later began attending professional conferences with an international audience, she had the same experience. Everyone can modify the way they speak depending on who they are with or what the situation is. When they do this, they are drawing on their sociolinguistic knowledge. And every time they change the way they speak, depending on their interlocutor or situation, they provide more sociolinguistic information that builds up the sociolinguistic knowledge in the community.

HOW DO SOCIOLINGUISTS STUDY SOCIOLINGUISTICS?

Sociolinguists use a range of methods to analyse patterns of language in use and attitudes towards language in use. Some sociolinguistic patterns can only be observed systematically

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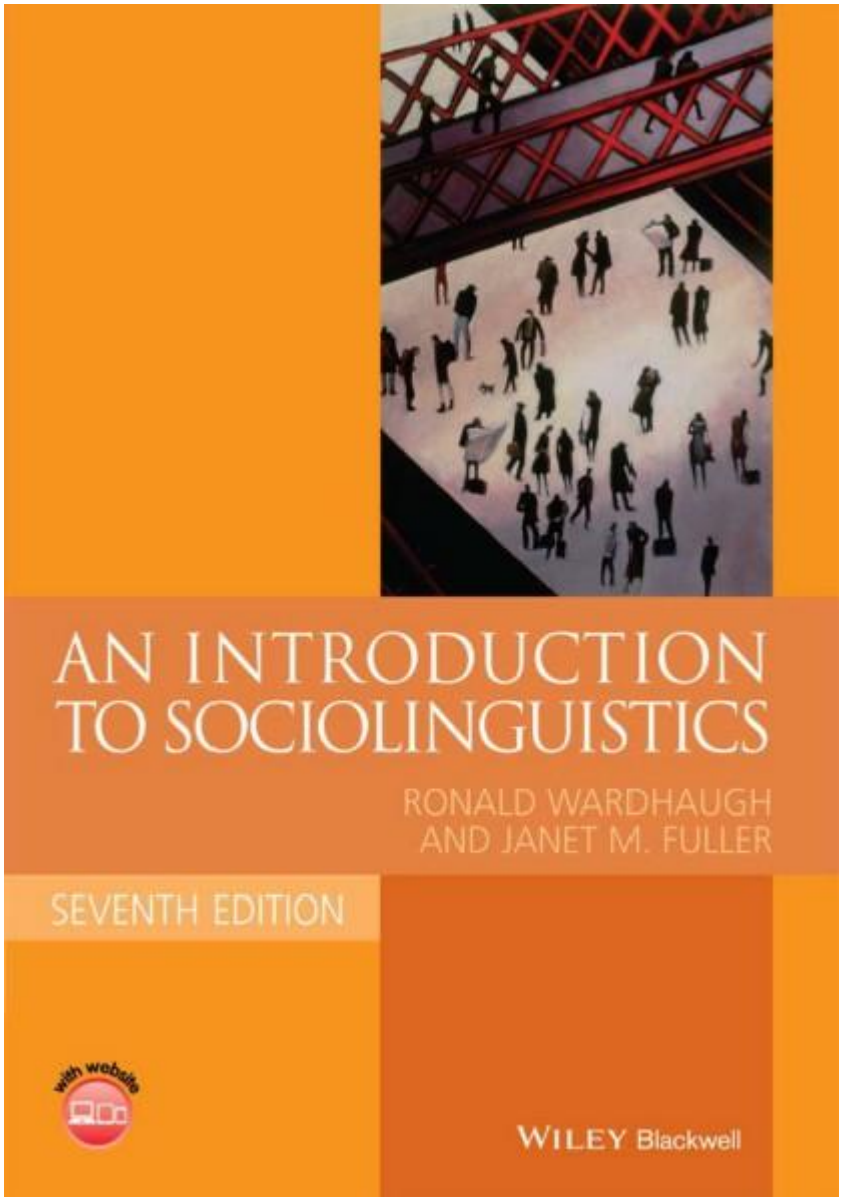

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1

Introduction

Key Concepts

How to define and delineate the study of sociolinguistics

What it means to 'know' a language

How language varies across speakers and within the speech of one person

The social construction of identities

The relationship between language and culture

Research design and methodologies for sociolinguistics research

Sociolinguistics is the study of our everyday lives – how language works in our casual conversations and the media we are exposed to, and the presence of societal norms, policies, and laws which address language. Since you are reading this book, you may already have some idea what the study of sociolinguistics entails; you may already have an interest in, and knowledge about, regional dialects, multilingualism, language policy, or non-sexist language. And we will cover all of these topics, along with many others – what social class and ethnicity might have to do with language use, why we do not always 'say what we mean,' the role of language in education.

But we would like to encourage readers to approach the study of sociolinguistics not as a collection of facts, but as a way of viewing the world around you. In sociolinguistics, we seek to analyze data so that we can make generalizations about

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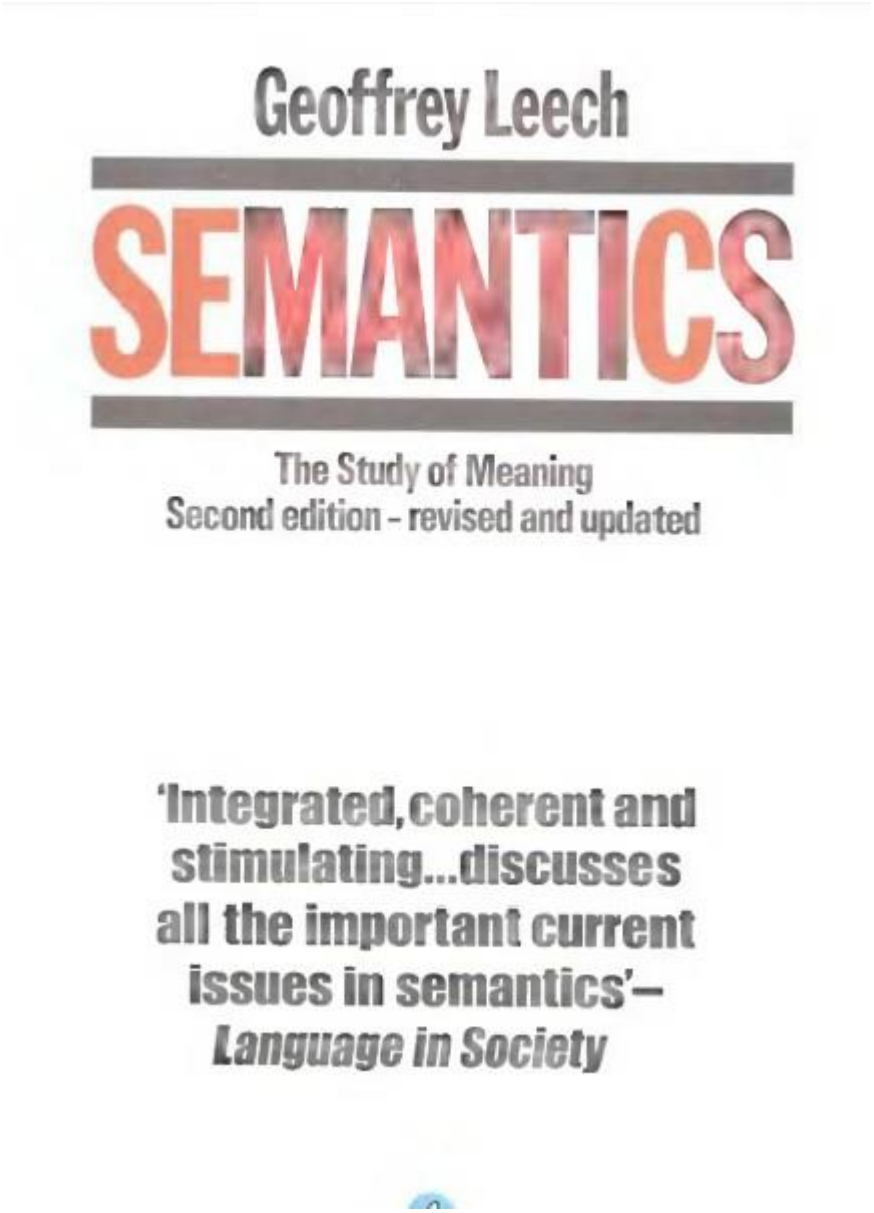
Leech, G. (1981). *Semantics: the Study Of Meaning – Second Edition*. Pelican Books



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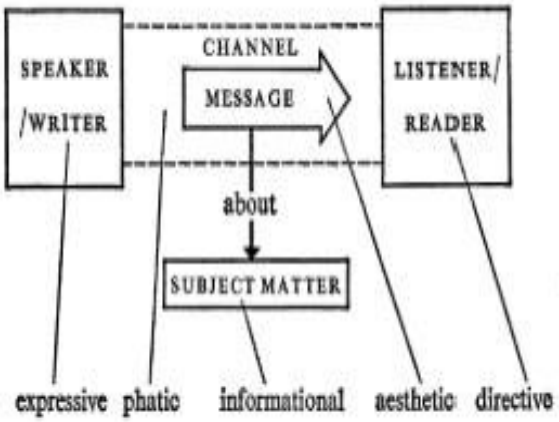
FUNCTION	ORIENTATION TOWARDS
informational:	subject-matter
expressive:	speaker/writer
directive:	listener/reader
phatic:	channel of communication
aesthetic:	message

or in diagram form:



The functions which most directly involve the social roles of language are the *expressive*, *directive*, and *phatic* functions; and it is to these that I shall devote the rest of the chapter. It may be wondered why the expressive function is included in this trio: after all, one can use expressive language in a social vacuum (Robinson Crusoe may have uttered an oath when he saw his clothes float away on the tide). But when we are considering the public expression of opinions and attitudes, it is very difficult to recognize a boundary between expressing one's own feelings, and influencing those of others. There is no way of telling, from inspecting the text, whether the position adopted by a writer is actually an expression of his own convictions, or whether it is assumed solely for the purposes of argument. At least in ideological and religious discussion, the two things usually go together. This is why, in the discussion that follows, I shall treat the expressive and directive functions together.

Five Functions of Language

Before proceeding, let us look at the most important communicative functions of language.

Apart from the neutral *informational* function which everyone tends to assume is most important, language can have an *expressive* function; that is, it can be used to express its originator's feelings and attitudes - swear words and exclamations are the most obvious instances of this. Conceptual meaning is predominant in the informational use of language. But for the expressive function, affective meaning (what language communicates of the author's attitudes - see p. 15) is clearly all-important. A third function of language is the *directive* function whereby we aim to influence the behaviour or attitudes of others. The most straightforward instances of the directive function are commands and requests. This function of social control places emphasis on the receiver's end, rather than the originator's end of the message; but it

resembles the expressive function in giving less importance, on the whole, to conceptual meaning than to other types of meaning, particularly affective and connotative meaning.

The expressive function has often been assumed to include the poetic use of language, but this view, I think, rests on an unacceptable, though popular, view of poetry as an effusion of the poet's emotions. Instead, I would prefer to recognize in poetry a separate *aesthetic* function, which can be defined as 'the use of language for the sake of the linguistic artefact itself, and for no ulterior purpose'. This aesthetic function, as we saw on pp. 37–8, can have at least as much to do with conceptual as with affective meaning. But the main semantic point about poetry is that it is language communicating 'at full stretch': all possible avenues of communication, all levels and types of meaning, are open to use. Both the poet and the reader bring a heightened sensitivity to meaning to bear on the act of communication.

Yet a further function of language, which the layman rarely takes seriously enough, is the so-called *phatic* function (after Malinowski's term 'phatic communion'), i.e. the function of keeping communication lines open, and keeping social relationships in good repair (in British culture, talking about the weather is a well-known example of this). The phatic function is at the furthest remove from the aesthetic function, in that here the communicative work done by language is at its lightest: it is not so much what one says, but the fact that one says it at all, that matters.

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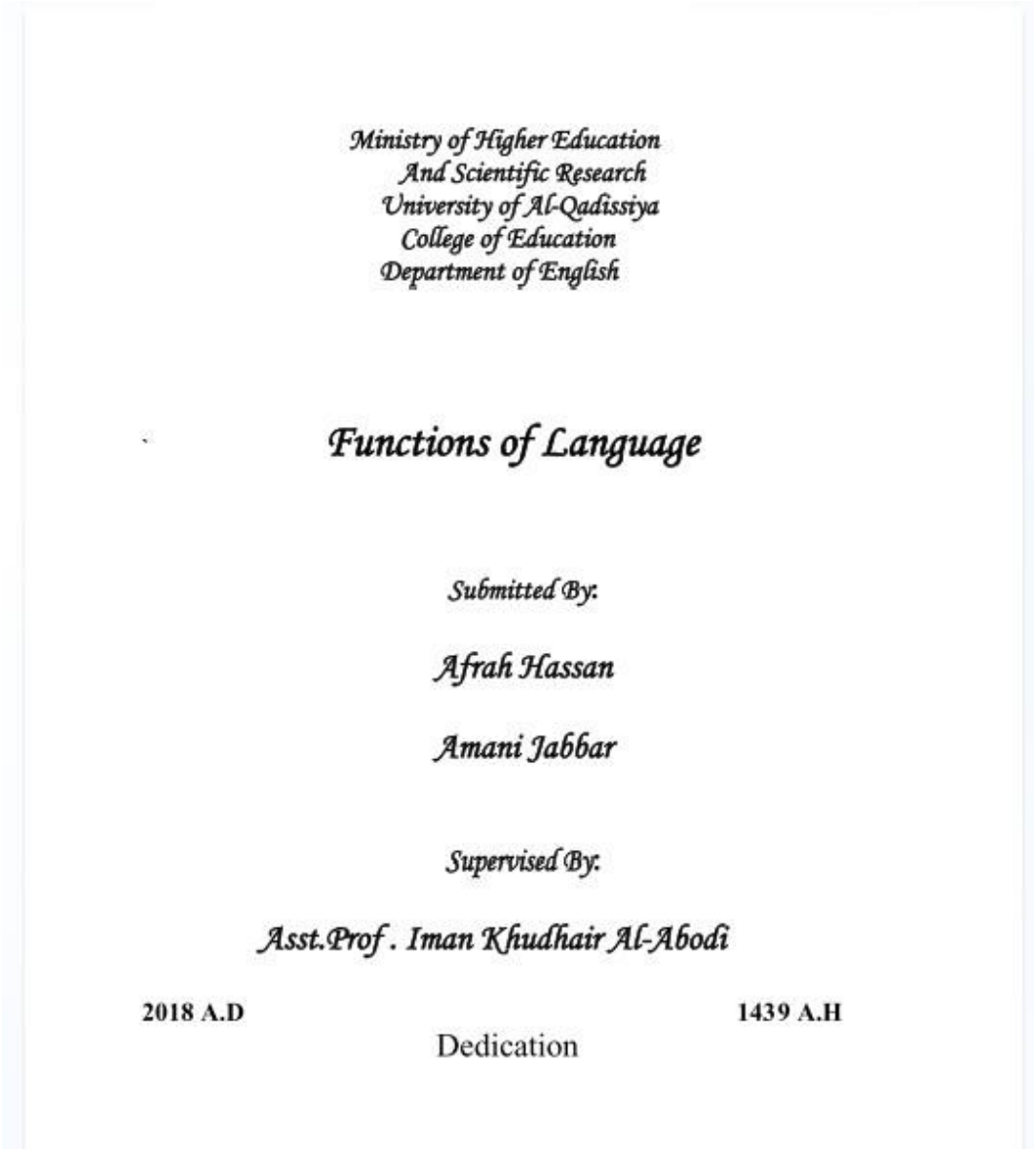

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Functions of Language

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Supervised By:

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2018 A.D **1439 A.H**

Dedication

1.5.1 The Informative Function

The informative function of language involves information of giving and receiving. The general assumption is that the content is believable and valuable. For example, language is used to offer opinions, give advice, make announcements, lecture, admonish, or news report, solicit input or ask questions. Everyday conversations center around information sharing."Informational function which every one tends to assume is most important" Leech(1974:53). In fact, this function concentrates on the message. It is used to give new information. It depends on truth and value. Let us look at this example, the car is big, the bus is crowded (Crystal,2005:227).

According to Leech (1966:59 (the informational function can be considered most important, since it helps us deliver messages, describe things, and give our listener new information. Actually, message is a word that describes this function best. The informational function is also related to such terms as a truth and a value.There are words that are used to express attitudes and feelings, which don't deliver any particular information. Obvious examples of such words are swear words, as well as various exclamations. This function of language is used not to deliver a message, but to express feelings and impressions.

1.5.2 The Expressive Function

Language expresses and evokes ideas, thoughts and feelings. Expressive

with affective meaning. The function is associated with the message-the vehicle-as the poetic or aesthetic function: the sign is taken as an end in itself. All art understood as art is taken to embody this function, and any object valued for its beauty rather than for its ideological value or usefulness-whether a gorgeous car, an elegant teapot, or some acreage of untouched real estate-takes on this function (Ibid.).

According to Leech (1974:69) this function doesn't have any particular purpose. Here words and sentences are considered as linguistic artifacts. This function serves neither as a request nor as a message.

1.5.4 Directive Function

language is used a directive whereby we aim to influence the behavior or attitudes of others. The most straightforward instances of the directive function are commands and requests. This function of social control places emphasis on the receiver's end, rather than the originator's end of the message: but it resembles the expressive function in giving less importance, on the whole, to conceptual meaning than to other types of meaning, particularly affective and connotative meaning" (Leech ,1974:216).

Language is used to establish and maintain social order. Directive use of language establishes norms of expected behavior in certain situations. Traffic signs, laws, rules and policies are among the common forms of directive language that promote health and safety in society. "Eat your vegetables" is an example of directive use of language used in informal communication (Ibid.).

1.4.1 Phatic Function

The phatic function deals with the connection between speakers. Its primary purpose is to attract/establish, prolong, check, confirm, or discontinue this connection, and may be composed of either culturally or non-culturally bound set phrases like *well, I won't keep you* ,*wow* !,and *really*. ¶In addition to strengthening the relationship between speakers, the use of the phatic function also increases the listener's perception of the speaker's proficiency) Narcis,2017:59-60.(

The phatic function means expressing solidarity and empathy with others. It helps to establish contact and refers to the channel of communication. It opens the channel or checking that it is working, for social reason. This function is used for sociability. Therefore sometimes vernacular words used in this function. It is characterizted mainly of speech, however, in a certain types of writing it can also be noticed as in letters for example, where the beginning Dear Sir/Madam and ending Yours Faithfully also serve that purpose (Zegarac, and Clark, 1999:567).

Coupland (2000:207) states that despite the growing number of publications on phatic communication, this type of social interaction calls for much further research on a number of issues, including the three which are briefly outlined here. First, analyses of phatic communication are often couched in terms of the distinction between cognitive (propositional) and social information.

1.4.2 The Poetic Function

The poetic function is defined by Jakobson as "the attitude towards the

message itself, centering on the message itself. " The poetic function can not be reduced only to poetry or to the poetic function of the message, and consists in that it emphasizes the concrete side sign of the language, deepening the fundamental opposition between what is intelligible and what is perceptible, between the linguistic sign as a means of intelligible knowledge and the objects of the reference reality (Narcis,2017:60.(

The Poetic Function, also known as the aesthetic Function, deals with language whose primary focus is the beauty of the language itself. The richness of sound and texture ،and the balance that makes it a work of auditory art or poetic utterance"[.The other functions need not be absent in poetic texts. They merely play a subordinate role, just as in other linguistic genres, the poetic function is not absent, but only appears in a subordinate role (in political slogans, advertising, commemorative speeches, etc) "(.Holenstein, 1974.(١٦٤:

1.4.3 The Metalingual Function

Metalingual function is used whenever the addresser and the addressee need to check whether they use same code and when the language is used to speak about language. For example: "What do you mean by "krill"?" , " What is plucked?". In the process of language learning, the acquisition of mother tongue includes wide use of metalingual actions; for example aphasia may be described as a loss of capability form metalingual actions (Tribus,2017:16(.

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1. Bahasa. I. Judul. II. Yahya, Muhamad

400

(1) Apakah kebiasaan menghilangkan fungsi-fungsi fa-
matik dan memendekkan berbagai bentuk kata di
kalimat itu tidak melatih perilaku korupsi?
(2) Apakah pengindonesiaan istilah asing yang ber-
lebihan dan lepas kontrol tidak mengikis rasa ke-
bangsaan?
(3) Apakah penetapan kegramatikalan berdasarkan ke-
umuman dalam tata bahasa Indonesia itu tidak ber-
tentangan dengan asas "yang benar adalah benar,
yang salah adalah salah"?

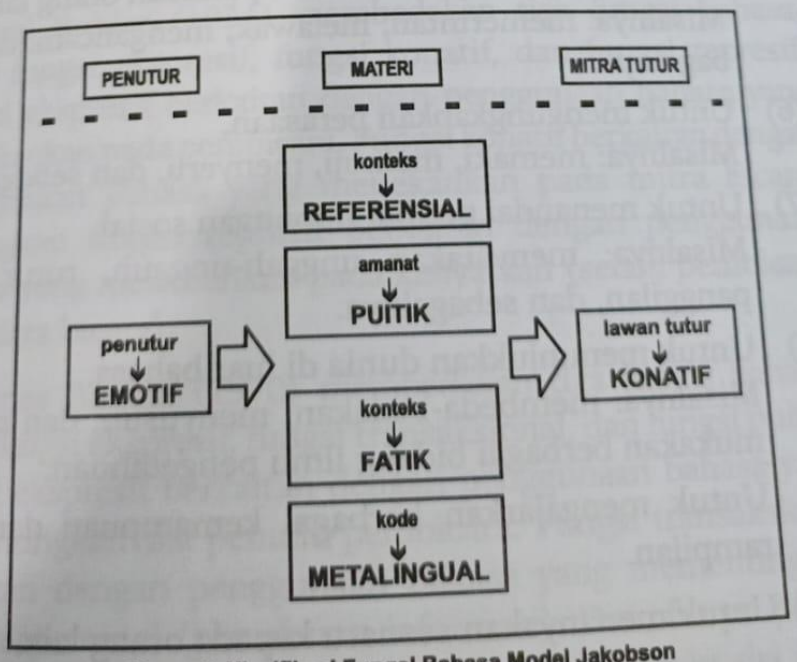
B. FUNGSI KHUSUS

Roman Jakobson telah membagi fungsi bahasa atas enam macam, yakni fungsi emotif, konatif, referensial, puitik, fatik, dan metalingual. Ahli bahasa yang gagasannya terilhami oleh Karl Buhler ini mendasarkan pembagiannya pada tumpuan perhatian atau aspek. Seperti kita ketahui, bahasa memiliki enam aspek, yakni aspek *addresser, context, message, contact, code,* dan *addresce*. Apabila tumpuannya pada si penutur (*addresser*), fungsi bahasanya dinamakan emotif. Apabila tumpuan pembicaraan pada konteks (*context*), fungsi bahasanya disebut referensial. Apabila tumpuan pembicaraan pada amanat (*message*), fungsi bahasanya puitik (*poetic*). Apabila tumpuan pembicaraan pada kontak (*contact*), fungsi bahasanya disebut fatik (*phatic*). Apabila tumpuan pembicaraan pada kode (*code*), fungsi bahasanya disebut metalingual. Apabila tumpuan pembicaraan pada lawan bicara (*addresce*), fungsi bahasanya dinamakan konatif.

Fungsi emotif misalnya dipakai untuk mengungkapkan rasa gembira, kagum, kesal, sedih, dan sebagainya. Fungsi referensial dipakai untuk membicarakan suatu permasalahan dengan topik tertentu. Jika kita menyampaikan suatu amanat atau pesan tertentu, fungsi bahasa yang terlibat adalah fungsi puitik.

Fungsi fatik digunakan sekadar untuk mengadakan kontak dengan orang lain. Orang Jawa, apabila berpasangan dengan orang yang sudah dikenal, selalu menggunakan fungsi fatik ini, dengan ucapan *"Mangga!"* yang maknanya tidak bermaksud 'mempersilakan' mitra tuturnya; atau dengan kalimat tanya *"Badhe tindak pundi?"* yang maknanya tidak bermaksud 'ingin tahu tujuan mitra tuturnya'. Kesemuanya itu tiada ada maksud lain kecuali sebagai alat kontak semata, alat untuk menunjukkan bahwa penutur memiliki hubungan (kontak) dengan mitra tutur. Orang Belanda menggunakan ucapan *"Dag!"* untuk tujuan yang sama seperti di atas.

Apabila yang dibicarakan masalah bahasa adalah dalam hal menggunakan bahasa tertentu, maka fungsi bahasanya disebut metalingual. Selanjutnya apabila bahasa yang digunakan bertumpu pada lawan tutur, misalnya agar lawan bicara kita bersikap atau berbuat sesuatu, maka fungsi bahasa tersebut disebut konatif. Dalam fungsi konatif ini penutur meminta mitra tutur untuk berbuat sesuatu, atau mengendalikan mitra tutur untuk tidak berbuat sesuatu.



Skema 2. Klasifikasi Fungsi Bahasa Model Jakobson

Keterangan: • huruf kapital = fungsi bahasa • huruf kecil = tumpuan

dan mitra bicara).

penggunaan
(selain pembicara

James Britton (1970) membedakan tiga fungsi bahasa, yakni fungsi ekspresif, fungsi transaksional, dan fungsi puitik. Fungsi ekspresif berkaitan dengan penggunaan bahasa yang mementingkan sisi penulis/pembicara. Fungsi transaksional berkaitan dengan penggunaan bahasa yang mementingkan sisi interpersonal (pertukaran informasi). Dan, fungsi puitik berkaitan dengan penggunaan yang mementingkan sisi amanat yang dikomunikasikan.

Cook, G. (1989). *Discourse*. Oxford University Press.

Language Teaching:
A Scheme for Teacher Education

Editors: C N Candlin and H G Widdowson

Discourse

Guy Cook

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The emotive function: communicating the inner states and emotions of the addresser ('Oh no!', 'Fantastic!', 'Ugh!', and swear words used as exclamations).
The directive function: seeking to affect the behaviour of the addressee ('Please help me!', 'Shut up!', 'I'm warning you!').
The phatic function: opening the channel or checking that it is working either for social reasons ('Hello', 'Lovely weather', 'Do you come here often?'), or for practical ones ('Can you hear me?', 'Are you still there?', 'Can you see the blackboard from the back of the room?', 'Can you read my writing?').
The poetic function: in which the particular form chosen is the essence of the message. (The advertising slogan *BEANZ MEANZ HEINZ* would lose its point if it were paraphrased as 'If you are buying beans, you will naturally buy Heinz.')
The referential function: carrying information.
The metalinguistic function: focusing attention upon the code itself, to clarify it or renegotiate it ('What does this word here mean?', 'This bone is known as the "femur"', '"Will" and "shall" mean the same thing nowadays'). This book has a largely metalinguistic function.
The contextual function: creating a particular kind of communication ('Right, let's start the lecture', 'It's just a game').

information' or 'to tell other people your thoughts'. People are not as simplistic as this; even a moment's reflection leads to the conclusion that language has many more functions. Nevertheless it is true, in the adult and public world at least, that this function which language has of transmitting information, its *referential* function, is considered the most important. To abuse it, by sending false information, is usually regarded as wrong, and can, in certain circumstances, incur the punishment of imprisonment or a fine. Yet it is by no means the only, or the first, function of language in human life. In the world of the infant and parent, the referential function of language often takes a subordinate role to others. There is little the four-year-old child can tell his or her parents that they do not know already, for they share the child's world almost entirely. The same is true in other intimate relationships. Some conversations of couples, whether affectionate or belligerent, have scant informational content. And even in the wider social world of adult intercourse, language clearly has many more functions than simply sending information.

▶ TASK 13

You hear one side of a telephone call in a foreign language. The speaker says: 'tak . . . tak . . . nu da . . . tak . . . pravda? . . . tak . . . '. What do you think the function of these words is and what are their English equivalents?

There have been many, sometimes conflicting, attempts to classify the main functions of language (*macro-functions*). One of the clearest and most influential was formulated by the linguist Roman Jakobson (1960), and further developed by Dell Hymes (1962). (The terms we shall use here are based on both accounts, without exactly following either.) The scheme proceeds by first identifying the elements of communication, as follows:

The addresser: the person who originates the message. This is usually the same as the person who is sending the message, but not always, as in the case of messengers, spokespeople, and town criers.
The addressee: the person to whom the message is addressed. This is usually the person who receives the message, but not necessarily so, as in the case of intercepted letters, bugged telephone calls, and eavesdropping.
The channel: the medium through which the message travels: sound waves, marks on paper, telephone wires, word processor screens.
The message form: the particular grammatical and lexical choices of the message.
The topic: the information carried in the message.
The code: the language or dialect, for example, Swedish, Yorkshire English, Semaphore, British Sign Language, Japanese.
The setting: the social or physical context.

Sa'adah, N, A. (2018). *A Study of Emotive Function Used By Normal and Abnormal People in Sybil Movie*. State Islamic University of Sunan Ampel Surabaya. http://digilib.uinsa.ac.id/26470/.

A STUDY OF EMOTIVE FUNCTION USED BY NORMAL AND ABNORMAL PEOPLE IN *SYBIL* MOVIE

THESIS

Submitted as Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Bachelor Degree of English Department Faculty of Arts and Humanities UIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya

By
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STATE ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY OF SUNAN AMPEL
SURABAYA
2018

information and **interactional** which is concerned to build and maintain a interaction or a social relationship such as; greeting.

According to Cook (1989:25) language function can be classified into two main function of language which are **macro funtion** and **micro function**. Macro function classified the function of languageas as well as in general into seven funtions. Whereas, micro function is categorization of language into a small number of macro function which we have to subdivide each function and specify more delicate categories.

2.3 Types of Function of Language

According to Guy Cook there are seven types determines a different function of language. Moreover, the definition kinds of language functions based on Cook (1989) as these follow:

1. Emotive Function

The emotive function or usually called as expressive function (Jacobson, 1960). The emotive function expressing the emotions and inner states of the speaker. It refers to language is used by the speaker to communicate his or her feelings. It tends to produce a certain emotion, whether true or feigned. Example: "I'm feeling great today", "I'm very gloomy tonight", "Wow, what a view!", Oh no!", "Fantastic!".

2. Directive Function

Munir, A. (2018*). Language Function Used in the Hawkin's Hotel "The Girl on The Train"*. Alauddin Islamic State University of Makassar.

LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS USED IN THE HAWKIN'S NOVEL

"THE GIRL ON THE TRAIN"

A Thesis

Submitted to the Adab and Humanities Faculty of Alauddin State Islamic University Makassar in partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of the Degree of Sarjana Humaniora

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ENGLISH AND LITERATURE DEPARTMENT
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ALAUDDIN ISLAMIC STATE UNIVERSITY OF MAKASSAR
2018

Thus, according to Nadia (2014:177) directive function same as exclamations that give expression to the speaker's affective stance or attitude. Sometimes an exclamation is realized by an interjection which is a word or a sound used to express a sudden feeling or emotion, e.g. I am warning you!

The first example in expression above "please, help me!" means that the utterances that deliver where the interlocutor knows what the speaker means. Then, the second expression is "I am warning you!", the addresser intends to interlocutor can do an action. He wishes to the addressee obeys what he said.

In addition, based on definitions above the researcher concludes that directive function is how the people utter something directly that what the speaker means.

3. Referential

Holmes (2001:259) states that referential function is used to provide information about things and to reasons about fact, e.g. Forty-eight percent of all Americans live in igloos.

Furthermore, Steinberg (2007:66) says that referential function is a function describing objective or cognitive of the world. The objective expression (referential function) in language means to describe the general understanding about things in the real world, such as facts or evens, e.g. Cleopatra was bitten by an as.

The first example above "Forty-eight percent of all Americans live in igloos" from the statement provide the information that focuses on what the speaker knows about the Americans people who live in igloos. The second

UNIVERSITAS ISLAM NEGERI ALAUDDIN MAKASSAR

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Anggario, N. (2016). *An Analysis of Language Function Used By Buzzer Jokowi on Twitter*. Universitas Airlangga Surabaya https://repository.unair.ac.id/57118/.

ADLN - PERPUSTAKAAN UNIVERSITAS AIRLANGGA

An Analysis of Language Functions used by Buzzer Jokowi on Twitter

A Thesis

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2016

2.1.3.2 Directive function

ADLN - PERPUSTAKAAN UNIVERSITAS AIRLANGGA

This function uses to giving orders or making requests by using imperative statements. An imperative statements may express a strict demand such as saying (open the door) or it can seem less demanding by using the politeness strategy such as saying (open the door, please) or through using question tags in the case of informality between mother and son (Max the TV is still on!).

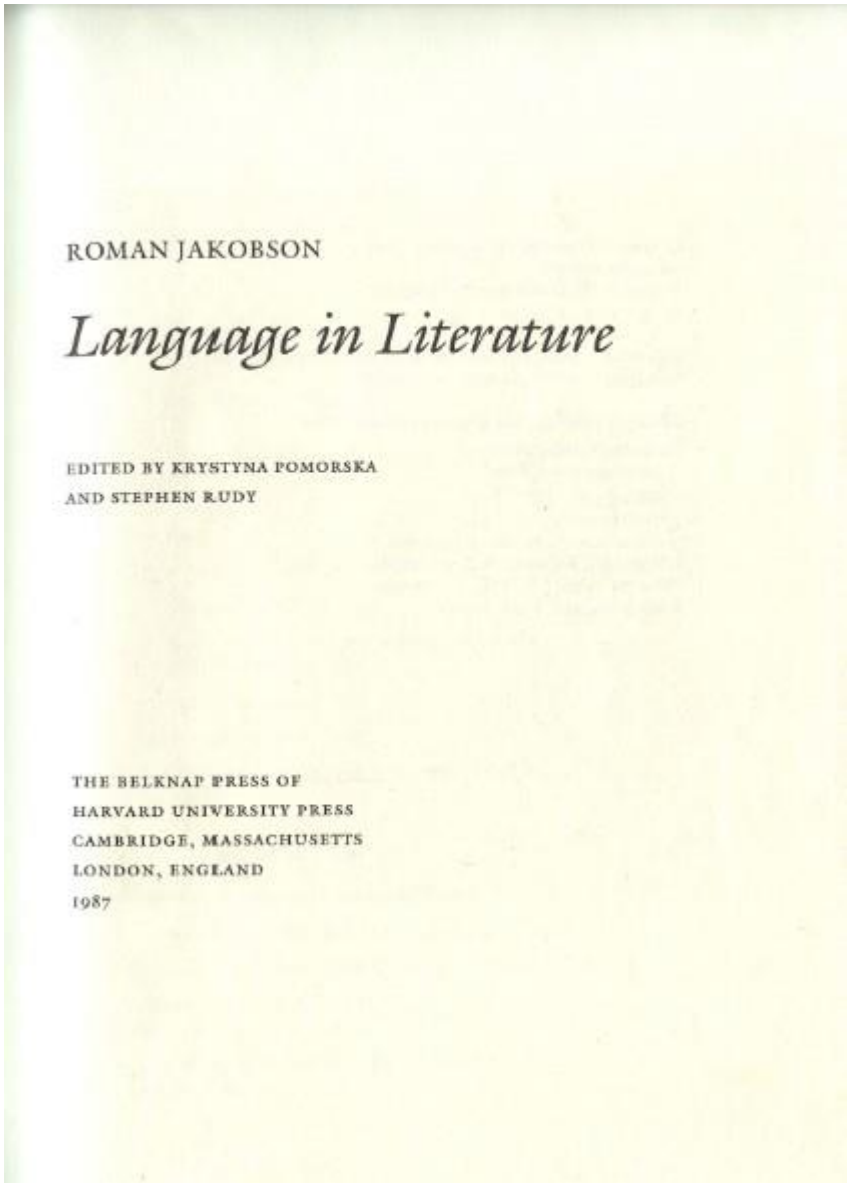
2.1.3.3 Expressive function

This function uses to express personal feelings, thoughts, ideas and opinions, with different choice words, intonation, etc. These expressions are submissive to social factors and to the nature of the expression as negative (I'm very gloomy tonight) or positive (I'm feeling very good today).

2.1.3.4 Phatic or Social function

This function is one of the most common speech acts in everyday interactions; it consists of greetings, complements, gossip, etc. for greeting a friend, a speaker can say (hi/hello). As for greeting a stranger, the speaker can use (hello), but the more formal greetings between strangers are (good morning/afternoon/evening).

Jakobson, R. (1987). *Language in Literature*. The Belknap Press of Harvard Universtity Press



ROMAN JAKOBSON

Language in Literature

EDITED BY KRYSTYNA POMORSKA
AND STEPHEN RUDY

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Orientation toward the addressee, the CONATIVE function, finds its purest grammatical expression in the vocative and imperative, which

syntactically, morphologically, and often even phonemically deviate from other nominal and verbal categories. The imperative sentences cardinally differ from declarative sentences: the latter are and the former are not liable to a truth test. When in O'Neill's play *The Fountain,* Nano "(in a fierce tone of command)" says "Drink!"—the imperative cannot be challenged by the question "is it true or not?" which may be, however, perfectly well asked after such sentences as "one drank," "one will drink," "one would drink." In contradistinction to the imperative sentences, the declarative sentences are convertible into interrogative sentences: "did one drink?," "will one drink?," "would one drink?"

Zulham, N, F., Mahendra, C, B, Y. (2020). *The Analysis of Speech Function Used by an ELESP Lecturer in English Young Learner Class*. Universitas Sanata Dharma, English Language Teaching and Researcher Journal, 1(1), 44-53. https://doi.org/10.37147/eltr.v1i1.49.

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English Language Education Study Program Association, Indonesia

THE ANALYSIS OF SPEECH FUNCTIONS USED BY AN ELESP LECTURER IN ENGLISH FOR YOUNG LEARNER CLASS

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Abstract
Speech function is a function performed by a speaker which has a purpose to specify their role. It is a situation where a speaker uses certain expression in order to convey some messages effectively. The use of speech function can be beneficial in our lives, especially in teaching learning processes. This research analyzed the speech function used by an English Language Education Study Program (ELESP) lecturer in English for Young Learners class. This study addressed one research question. It was the types of speech function which are used by an English Language Education Study Program of Sanata Dharma University lecturer in English for Young Learners class. The researcher used observation as the instrument to collect the data. Based on the findings, there were six speech functions used by the ELESP lecturer in teaching English for Young Learner class. They were referential function, emotive or expressive function, directive or conative function, phatic function, metalinguistic function, and poetic function. The result of the study revealed that the use of speech function in the classroom depends on the context and situation. Hence, it is not merely a meaningless function, yet it provides a bunch of advantageous for both lecturer and students.

Keywords: speech function, English for young learners, metalinguistic function

Introduction

Language is the most important thing used as a communication tool. On the other words, language is used as a medium to interact to people. It can be used in written and spoken forms. The use of language may vary, depending on what condition we are facing on. For the example, a language can be used to express our feelings. Meanwhile, giving information to someone is categorized as a speech function as well.

Because it may be used everywhere and every time, speech function also exists in classroom activities. A teacher tends to use several functions of speech while teaching their students. For instance, in order to inform learning materials to students, the teacher should use a speech function which has a function to inform something. The language used by the teacher has an important role for students' understanding. If the speech function is used properly in the right condition, it may support teaching-learning activities which is beneficial for both teachers and

the object of classroom and the procedure, asking and giving directions) or depicting actions in physical or sequent context (example telling time, notify date, daily routine).

In addition, Jacobson in Tribus (2017) says that referential function is a phrase of numerous messages or information. The examples of referential function are described as follows:

a. Tomorrow, we will talk about present tense. (The speaker gives information that tomorrow they will discuss about present tense).
b. I will give you some assignments after the class ended. (The speaker gives information to addressee that they will get assignments after the class).
c. Okay students, ten minutes again. (The speaker reminds the addressee that the remaining time is only ten minutes).

Emotive or Expressive Function

According to Jacobson (1985), emotive or expressive function is considered as personal attitude and emotional expression of the speaker. The most common emotive or expressive function is interjection. The speaker uses emotive or expressive function to make certain expression whether it is real or not. Some interjections such as "oh!","wow!", and "yeah!" are effective to express astonishment and disgust without creating explicit statement.

"There was a big scorpion in the bedroom." This sentence might be a simple referential function, but if the speaker said "There was a 'BIIIIG' scorpion in the bedroom!" it would more likely be intended and received as emotive expression because the prolonged vowel is a fact of the speaker's emotional reaction. Jacobson (1985) emphasizes in the searching for the language meaning that we have to look at emotional and psychological connection between the speaker and listener. The following are other examples of expressive or emotive function:

a. Great!
b. Wow! That is a brilliant idea!
c. Very bad day!
d. I am very happy today because I got some presents from my special person.

Directive or Conative Function

According to Delpit in Tribus (2017), the purpose of directive function is to make use of an indirect command. Conative or directive function focuses on the influence of the other person's behavior and concern with persuasion. On the other word, we can ask someone to do something with conative function, for example be quite. Furthermore, Jacobson in Rina (2016) claims that directive function is a phrase that has a purpose to make others do something. Essentially, there are many ways in expressing directive function such as imperative, interrogative and declarative.

Imperative sentence is a sentence that has a function to give a directive command. The examples are, "Go away!" and "Please open page 56 and answer the question!Interrogative sentence has a function to request information or give a command in indirect way, for example, "Can you tell me the moral values of the story?" It means the speaker gives a command to the listener to do something or answer the question. Declarative is a declaration phrase to make statement or convey information which makes the listener do something! The example is, "You

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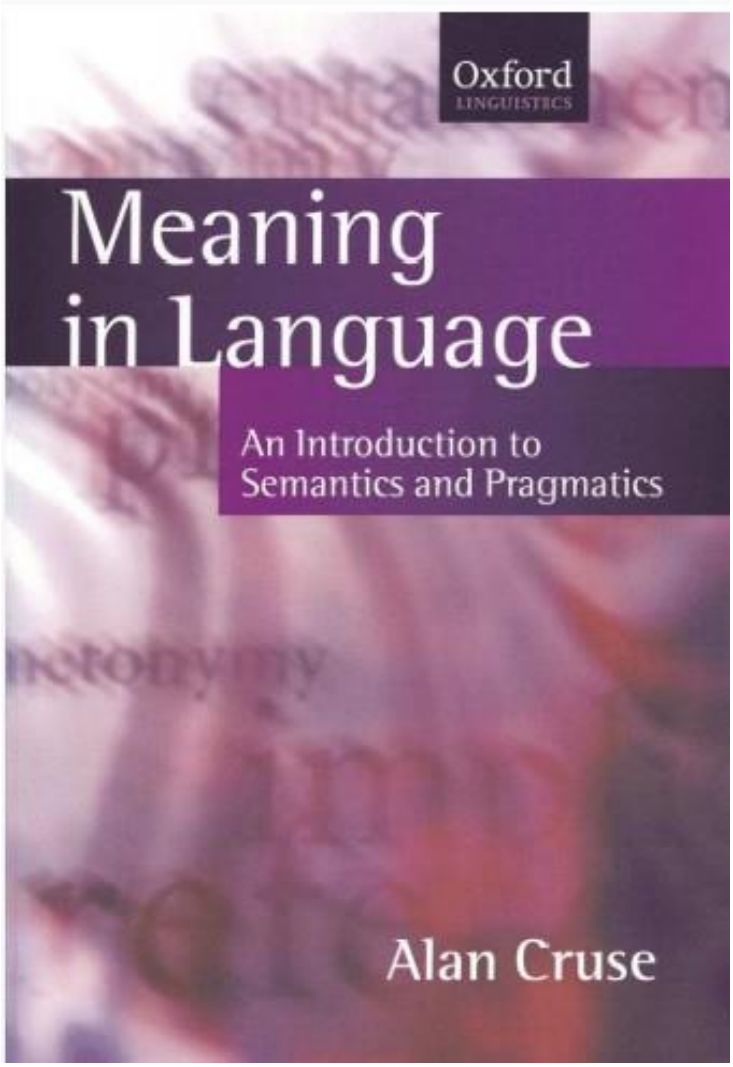

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It is necessary to make a distinction between saying that questions are a type of imperative, and saying that questions have an imperative-type component to their meaning. There is also a distinction between saying this and saying that questions prototypically have an imperative-like component. (The latter is what will be claimed here.) Notice that the strong imperative analysis omits any mention of an expression of ignorance. Such analyses rely on this being supplied inferentially in the contexts in which it occurs; likewise with the expression of a desire for the ignorance to be removed.

An alternative analysis on the lines of the imperative analysis is to say that what a question ***really*** means is an expression of ignorance, leaving the imperative component to be supplied inferentially in the contexts which call for it. This analysis handles the *Where did I put my wallet?* case, but deals less well with the examination case.

It is argued here that none of these reductive analyses account satisfactorily for the overwhelmingly strong intuition that the ***real*** meaning of a question, its prototype, includes at least the imperative component, the desire for the removal of ignorance, and the expression of ignorance. With this complex as central, it is easy to see other, non-prototypical readings clustering round it, forming a family resemblance structure with varying degrees of resemblance.

Imperatives

Imperatives resemble declaratives and interrogatives in that there is a prototypical use, whose main component is to get someone to do something, as with *Shut that door!* and a cluster of non-prototypical uses, such as *Take another step, and I'll shoot*, which manifestly does not aim at eliciting the action represented by the verb in the imperative, but rather the opposite. The negative force of this use of the imperative shows up in the (relative) normality of:

(28) Take another step and I'll shoot. And don't move your hand, either.

Once again, the prototypical meaning of the grammatical imperative lies in the same area as that of a set of explicit performatives, such as *order*, *command*, *enjoin*, *beg*, *beseech*, *request*, and so on, but as usual, is not synonymous with any of them.

Some analyses of imperatives (for instance, Palmer (1986: 29–30)) argue that the strong directive force observable in, say, a military command, is not a property of the imperative as such, but arises from the recognized authority of the speaker. Palmer points to the fact that 'Come in!' in response to a knock on the door is not strongly directive, but is in fact a granting of permission. He suggests that the basic meaning of the imperative is the expression of a generally favourable attitude to the action indicated (if a higher-ranking military person expresses a favourable attitude to some action, a lower-ranking addressee will infer that he or she had jolly well better do it!). However, this is not entirely convincing. If someone says, 'Peel those potatoes!' the directive force is not at all dependent on the authority of the speaker (although the

Rismayutinna, W, B. (2021). *An Analysis of Directive Speech Acts in 3 Years Old Children in Daily Conversation With Their Mom*. Eduvest, 1(1), 44-52 https://dx.doi.org/10.36418/edv.v1i1.1.

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AN ANALYSIS OF DIRECTIVE SPEECH ACT IN 3 YEARS OLD CHILDREN IN DAILY CONVERSATION WITH THEIR MOM

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Abstract

This study has investigated the directive speech act at 3 years old children in mom and kids conversation. This study has formulated two research questions concerning the types and social functions of directive speech acts used by 3 years old children in mom and kids conversation. Then, this study applied the descriptive qualitative method because it described the social phenomenon of directive speech act used by 3 years old children in mom and kids conversation. The data were taken naturally from the daily conversations and analyzed based on the main theory from Leech (1993). After organizing and examining the data, it can be found that the total number of types of directive speech employed by 3 years old children in mom and kids conversation is 70 types. They are classified in to nine types. The writer found 19 utterances belong to the request. Requesting as the most data that found in this research, because in daily activity kids often request something to her mom from they wake up until they sleep. Meanwhile, the primary social function of directive speech is competitive through the use of 36 conversations. According to Leech directive speech acts are classified as competitive functions or competing with social goals. These competitive goals are basic manners and intrinsically disrespectful and tend to cause conflict, such as commanding, requesting, asking, if they are told they tend to force.

Keywords: Pragmatics, Directive Speech, 3 Years Old Children

Introduction

Language is a symbol system that is manifested verbally in the form of sounds or non-verbally in the form of gestures. It is employed in the aim of various reasons in human life. It is considered an important medium due to its role as a means of communication. It enables people to express their identity, belief, value, emotion, order, desire, thought, etc. Therefore, people can accomplish their needs through language practice in the conversation. (Chaer, 1988)

Children use the language they have acquired through interaction with others, both with their peers, younger children, or with adults around them. Children's language skills will develop rapidly and improved vocabulary mastery allows them to express and think about a variety of objects and events. The language also forms the basis for a new form of social interaction, verbal communication. At preschool age, children can use a form of directive speech acts to ask, order, invite, and so on in the appropriate context as elements that underlie and complement the meaning of the speech.

The directive speech act is the speech act done by the speaker so that the interlocutor acts referred to in the speech. Each utterance expresses what the speaker wants. Each of these utterances can take the form of asking, commanding., inviting, and so on. According to Yule (Yule, 2020) speech acts are actions that occur in speech. Each

No.	Types of directive speech	Total
1	Requesting	18
2	Ordering	8
3	Inviting	8
4	Commanding	2
5	Suggestion	2
6	Rejecting	6
7	Begging	6
8	Asking	6
9	Reporting	3
10	Stating	17
11	Thanking	1
Total of The Types of Directive Speech		77

From the data above the most directive speech uses by kids 3 years old is requesting. It found 18 utterances that belong to requesting. Then, stating is also often used by kids for communicating with mom. It shows from the data that stating found in 17 utterances. The explanation will be clear as follow:

a) Requesting

Leech st[illegible] that a request is a directive illocutionary act that allows the option of refusal. Besides, the request is an expression of what the speaker wants the hearer to do or refrain from doing! In this research, the writer found several utterances of 3-year-old children in mom [illegible] kids conversation that contained the intention of requesting. The writer found 19 utterances belong to the request. Requesting as the most data that found in this research, because in daily activity kids often request something to her mom from they wake up until they sleep. (Geoffrey, 1993)

Data 1:

Albrisham : Mami .... mimi punten

Albrisham: mamih ... mimi punten (mamih makes milk please)

Mami : Iya ,sebentar

Mami: wait a minute.

From the conversation above, Abrisham is a 3-year-old child and Mami is Abrisham's mother. Abrisham just woke up and asked for milk from her mother. Abrisham said the requesting utterance by saying 'mimi punten'. "Mimi" is milk, and 'punten' is a word to indicate a wish for something. In the conversation, Abrisham said 'mimi punten' with the intention that his mother gave him milk. This reflected that the purpose of the sentence requesting by Abrisham has been fulfilled. It means that Abrisham can say the sentence requesting properly and correctly.

b) Ordering

Leech (Geoffrey, 1993)states that a Command is effective only if the speaker has some degree of control over the actions of the hearer. In this research, the writer found 7 utterances of 3-year-old children and mom that contained the intent to govern. It will be clear in the explanation of:

Data 2:

Albrisham : Mamih, bukain!

Albrisham: Mom, open!

Mamih : Sini aa

Mommy: Here, aa

From the conversation above, Abrisham is a 3-year-old child who was carrying ice cream that was still wrapped. Then, Abrisham commanding his mother to open the ice

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From the conversation above, Abrisham is a 3-year-old child who was carrying ice cream that was still wrapped. Then, Abrisham commanding his mother to open the ice

Cahyani, B, Y. (2013*). The Directive Speech Act By The Characters in The Novel "Land of Five Towers" (2011): A Pragmatic Study. Public Manuscript*. Muhammadiyah University of Surakarta https://eprints.ums.ac.id/31530/14/Manuscript_Publication.pdf.

THE DIRECTIVE SPEECH ACT USED BY THE CHARACTERS IN THE NOVEL "THE LAND OF FIVE TOWERS" (2011): A PRAGMATIC STUDY

PUBLICATION MANUSCRIPT

Submitted to Fulfill one of the Requirements for the completion of

Graduate Degree in Language Study

By:

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S200110052

DEPARTMENT OF LANGUAGE STUDIES GRADUATE PROGRAM

MUHAMMADIYAH UNIVERSITY OF SURAKARTA

2013

The Illocutionary Act of Directive Utterances Used by the Characters in the Novel "The Land of Five Towers (2011)

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Muhammadiyah University of Surakarta, 2014

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Abstract

Directive utterance is the most common speech act used by people in their daily activities. Directives speech act means the speaker directs a demand to a listener or ask someone doing something. The present paper aims at describing the illocutionary act found in the novel "The Land of Five Towers". The method used in this study is descriptive qualitative. The data of this study are the utterances used by all the characters containing directive speech act. It is analyzed based on Searle's theory of speech act. The result shows that there are twelve illocutionary acts of directive utterances used by the characters in the novel. They are requesting, commanding, ordering, suggesting, advising, prohibiting, warning, reminding, reproving, admonishing, urging and inviting. The most common illocutionary act used by the characters is request. The second is suggesting and followed by advising. The least data of illocutionary act is reproving.

Key words: *directive speech act, illocutionary act.*

1. Introduction

Austin in Cutting (2002: 16) defined speech acts as the actions performed in saying something. He claims that the action performed when an utterance is produced can be analyzed on three different levels, those are: locution, illocution, and perlocution. Locution is 'what is said' or the form of the words uttered; the act of saying something is known as the locutionary act. Illocution is 'what is done in uttering the words'; the function of the words, the specific purpose that the speakers have in mind. Perlocution is the result of the words or 'what is done by uttering the words'; it is the effect of the utterance on the listener or hearer's reaction.

"Everyone should head there immediately brothers, thank you for coming."

7) Strategy 7: Performatives

The sentence that shows performatives, for instance:

"We are assigning you as jasus. Spies"

8) Strategy 8: Imperatives and Elliptical Construction

The sentence that shows imperatives and elliptical construction, for example:

"Get out of here"

"Come on, faster."

b. Prohibition

Prohibition is the act of keeping out or ruling out to someone intended to benefits the hearer. The sentence that shows prohibition, for example:

"The point is, Amak is not willing to let you enroll in public high school."

c. Suggestion

Suggestion is the act of recommending someone to be better in doing something. If someone wants others to be better, he/she may use suggestion. So, suggestion gives benefits for the hearer. The sentence that shows suggestion, for instance:

"If you want to be clever, you have to read books like this."

d. Command

Command is to express a desire means the act of commanding someone to do something. It is usually done because the speaker has more power than the hearer. It is commonly addressed directly to the second person in the forms of direct utterance and in imperative sentence (Wijayanto and Ariatmi, 2013: 185). The sentence that shows command, for example:

"Everyone who went to Surabaya, wait in my office. NOW."

Dewi, A, V. (2023). *The Directive Speech Acts Analysis of Lady Tremaine's Utterances in Cinderella Movie (2015)*. Undergraduate Thesis, Diponegoro University https://eprints2.undip.ac.id/id/eprint/16296/.

THE DIRECTIVE SPEECH ACT ANALYSIS OF
LADY TREMAINE'S UTTERANCES
IN *CINDERELLA* MOVIE (2015)

A THESIS

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for S-1 Degree Majoring Linguistic in the English Department, Faculty of Humanities Diponegoro University

Submitted by :
Vonny Arsindy Dewi
NIM 13020118120004

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES
DIPONEGORO UNIVERSITY
SEMARANG
2023

prohibit or forbid conveys the idea of ordering the hearer to not to perform a certain action (Bach & Harnish 1983:49). The primary distinction between to forbid and to prohibit is that prohibition is typically more permanent than forbid. To prohibit has the same meaning as to forbid, but with the addition of a time-related content condition (Searle & Vanderveken 1985:202). Moreover, prohibition can occur under a special condition where both the speaker and the hearer must possess the same underlying knowledge or understanding, so that the prohibition produces by the speaker can be fully understood by the hearer (Searle 1980:163). For instance, the utterance in Yule (1996:54) *Don't touch that.*

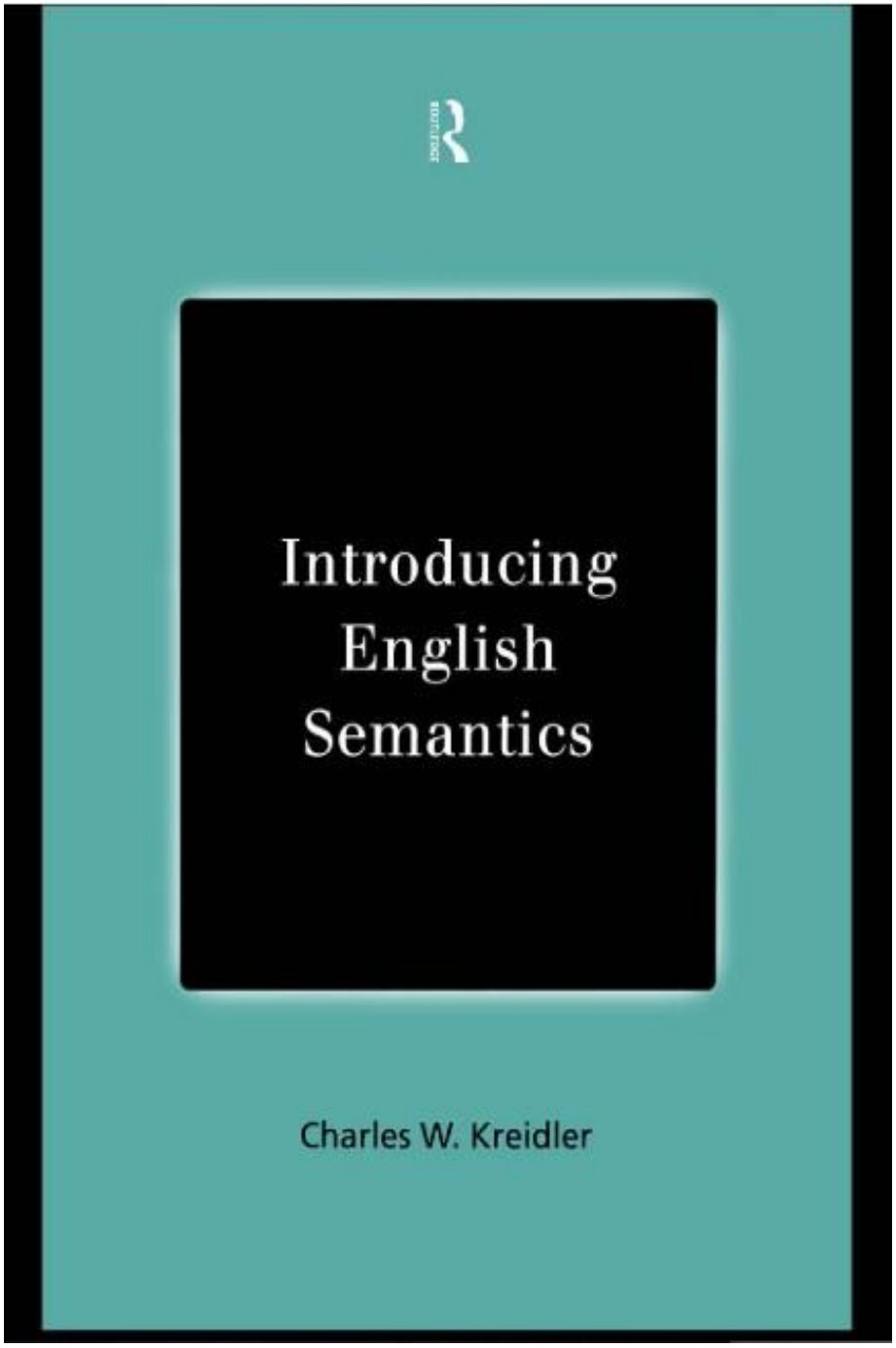
3) Request

As explained in the previous section, the intention of a request utterance is similar to a command utterance, because it requires the hearer to do something. Nevertheless, there are certain distinctions between request and command utterance. Searle and Vanderveken (1985:199) point out that it is possible for a hearer to refuse a speaker's request. Leech (1983:175) also argues that request and order differs on the degree to which the speaker offers the hearer options. For instance, the utterance *Could you lend me a pen, please?* in Yule (1996:54) is a request, not an order. In addition, Holmes (1984:284) argues that when making a request, children are taught to use the polite word "please." This means that in request utterance, a hearer under no obligation to comply with the request.

4) Question

According to Bach & Harnish (1979:48), questions are utterances used by a speaker to ask a hearer for certain information. Meanwhile, Searle & Vanderveken

Kreidler, W, C. (1998). *Introducing English Semantics*. Rouletdge



"For Jim and Cynthia, Julie and Mike"

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Three kinds of directive utterances can be recognized: commands, requests and suggestions. A **command** is effective only if the speaker has some degree of control over the actions of the addressee.

26a I (hereby) order you to appear in court next Monday at 10 a.m.
26b You must appear in court next Monday at 10 a.m.
27a I'm telling you not to waste your time on that.
27b Don't waste your time on that.

Commands can be produced with various degrees of explicitness. Sentences 26a and 27a are more explicit than 26b and 27b but the b utterances are less formal, therefore more usual. They have the form *You must*...or they are imperative sentences.

28 Passengers are required to keep seat belts fastened when the sign is lit.
29 Smoking is not permitted in the lavatories.

These utterances are commands, and fairly explicit ones, not because of syntax but because they contain such predicates as *require* and *permit*.

30 The boss demands that these letters (should) go out today.

This sentence, even if it becomes an utterance, is not a command but the report of a command.

The general meaning of a command, then, is:

> Speaker, in authority, expresses a wish that Addressee should <not> act as Speaker wants Addressee <not> to act.

(The angle brackets mean, here, that both occurrences of *not* are included in the definition or both are excluded.)

Predicates that can be used in explicit commands (and therefore in reports of commands) are:

> (positive) charge, command, direct, order, tell, demand ("I charge/command/direct/order/tell you to keep silence; I demand that you (should) keep silence.")
>
> (negative) forbid

A **request** is an expression of what the speaker wants the addressee to do or refrain from doing. A request does not assume the speaker's

(should) keep silence.")

(negative) forbid

A **request** is an expression of what the speaker wants the addressee to do or refrain from doing. A request does not assume the speaker's

control over the person addressed. Illustrations appear in sentences 28–30 (the last a reported request).

31 I appeal to you to help as much as you can.
32 We beg you to stay out of the way.
33 The receptionist asked the people in the waiting room not to smoke there.

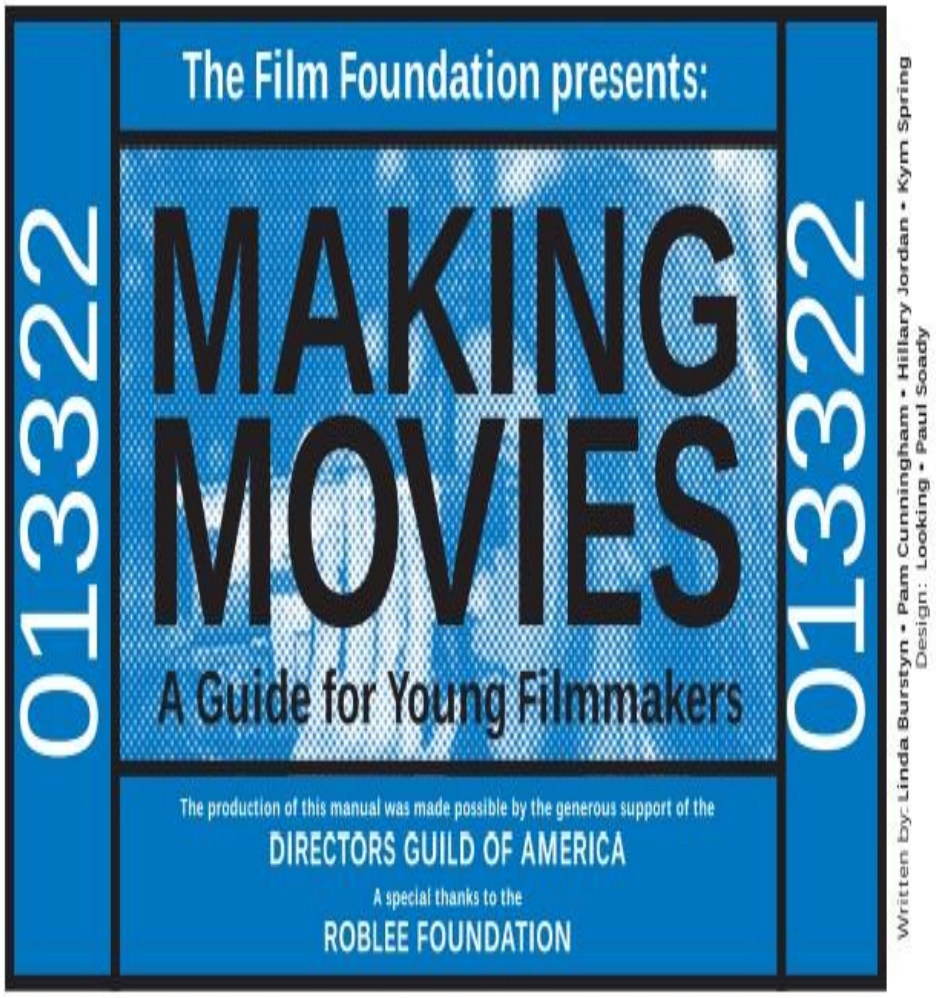
General meaning:

Speaker, not in authority, expresses wish that Addressee <not> act as Speaker wants Addressee <not> to act.

Request predicates:

appeal-to ask beg beseech entreat implore
petition plead-with request

Burstyn, L., Cunningham, P., Jordan, H., Spring, K.(2001). *Making Movies A Guide for Young Filmmakers*. The Film Foundation.



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Preface: What Is a Movie?

The word "movie" comes from the term "motion picture" - pictures that move.

Mrs. Doubtfire
Robin Williams is *Mrs. Doubtfire.*
Copyright © 1993 Twentieth Century Fox Film Corporation
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Beetlejuice
Barbara and Adam Maitland (Geena Davis and Alec Baldwin) change their minds about using the skills of demonic "freelance bio-exorcist" Betelgeuse (Michael Keaton) when he shows them his scary stuff.
Copyright © 1988 The Geffen Film Company
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Like books, movies tell a story. But instead of words on paper, movies are a visual and a listening experience. The audience sees and hears the story. People all over the world love this powerful medium — they love the way movies tell stories.

The storyteller is the director. He/she is in charge of how a story is made into a film. Exactly where and how the images are filmed and edited, how the actors portray their characters, and what the audience experiences, is all part of the director's vision. The story itself can be simple or complex, silly or intense. The director's vision is responsible for how the movie makes the audience feel about the story: sad, amused, bored, exhilarated, scared, powerful, or humble.

Stories in books can describe any place in the universe, with any number of characters. But there are constraints in filmmaking. Film directors can be limited by the weather, number of actors, available space, and, especially, the money needed for props, costumes, special lighting, sound and camera equipment. So, a lot of creative problem-solving comes into play.

It is the director's challenge to make his or her vision translate from story to movie, using the techniques of filmmaking — things like character development, camera angles, and editing. But you have to develop your own vision and probably the best way is to create (or help create) a film from beginning to end. By doing so, you will learn how to:

- develop a story and interesting characters
- write the story in the language of filmmakers: a screenplay
- create a visual storyboard to show camera angles, distance, and subjects
- plan a filming schedule
- utilize various camera, sound, and lighting techniques
- work with actors
- understand the power of art direction and continuity
- use costumes and makeup
- do post-production sound and editing

These components are presented in this manual for you to learn, practice, and adapt to fit your own vision. Throughout this manual, movies will be recommended as prime examples of different techniques and film accomplishments. Don't worry if you can't see every movie. You can observe and analyze the concepts in many films.

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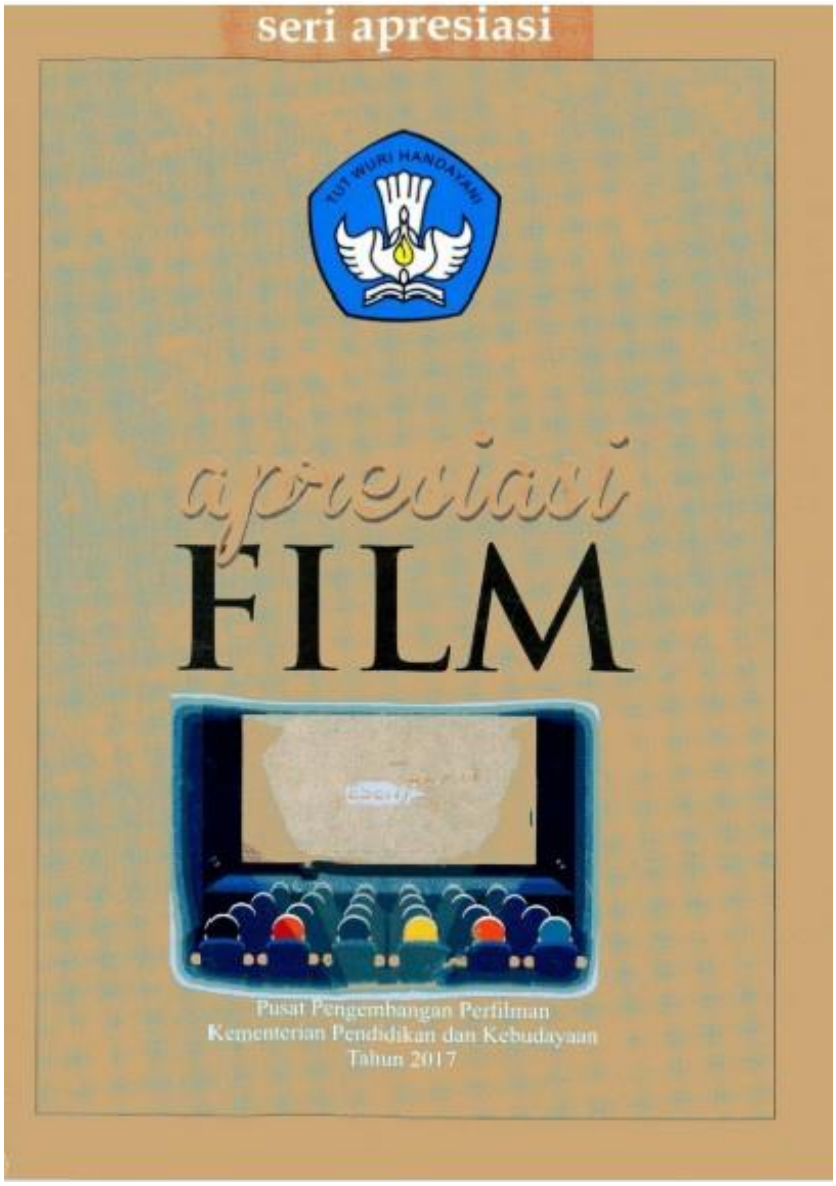

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Marselli Sumarno

Diterbitkan oleh
Pusat Pengembangan Perfilman
Kementerian Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan

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2. Film

Para teoritikus film menyatakan, film yang kita kenal dewasa ini merupakan perkembangan lanjut dari fotografi.

Siapakah penemu fotografi? Penemunya ialah Joseph Nicephore Niepce dari Prancis. Pada tahun 1826 ia berhasil

membuat campuran dengan perak untuk menciptakan gambar pada sebuah lempengan timah yang tebal yang telah disinari beberapa jam.

Penyempurnaan-penyempurnaan fotografi terus berlanjut, yang kemudian mendorong rintisan penciptaan film alias gambar hidup. Dua nama penting dalam rintisan penemuan film ialah Thomas Alva Edison dan Lumiere Bersaudara.

Thomas Alva Edison (1847-1931), ilmuwan Amerika Serikat yang terkenal dengan penemuan lampu listrik dan fonograf (*phonograph*) atau piringan hitam. Pada tahun 1887, ia merancang alat untuk merekam dan memproduksi gambar. Alat ini mirip dengan fungsi fonograf untuk suara. Meskipun Edison menciptakan sebuah mekanisme, tetapi ia belum menemukan bahan dasar untuk membuat gambar. Masalah ini terpecahkan dengan bantuan George Eastman yang menawarkan gulungan pita seluloid, mirip plastik tembus pandang yang cukup ulet, sekaligus mudah digulung.

Ciptaan Edison ini disebut kinetoskop (*kinetoscope*). Bentuknya menyerupai sebuah kotak berlubang untuk mengintip pertunjukan. Pada tahun 1894, di kota New York, mulai diadakan pertunjukan kinetoskop untuk umum. Yang dipertontonkan berupa fragmen-fragmen pertandingan tinju dan sketsa-sketsa hiburan kurang dari semenit. Atraksi ini segera popular di seluruh Amerika Serikat dan selanjutnya menyebar ke luar negeri, terutama di negeri-negeri Eropa. Di antara mereka yang mengagumi, yakni kakak-beradik Auguste dan Louis Lumiere dari Prancis yang lebih di kenal dengan nama Lumiere Bersaudara.

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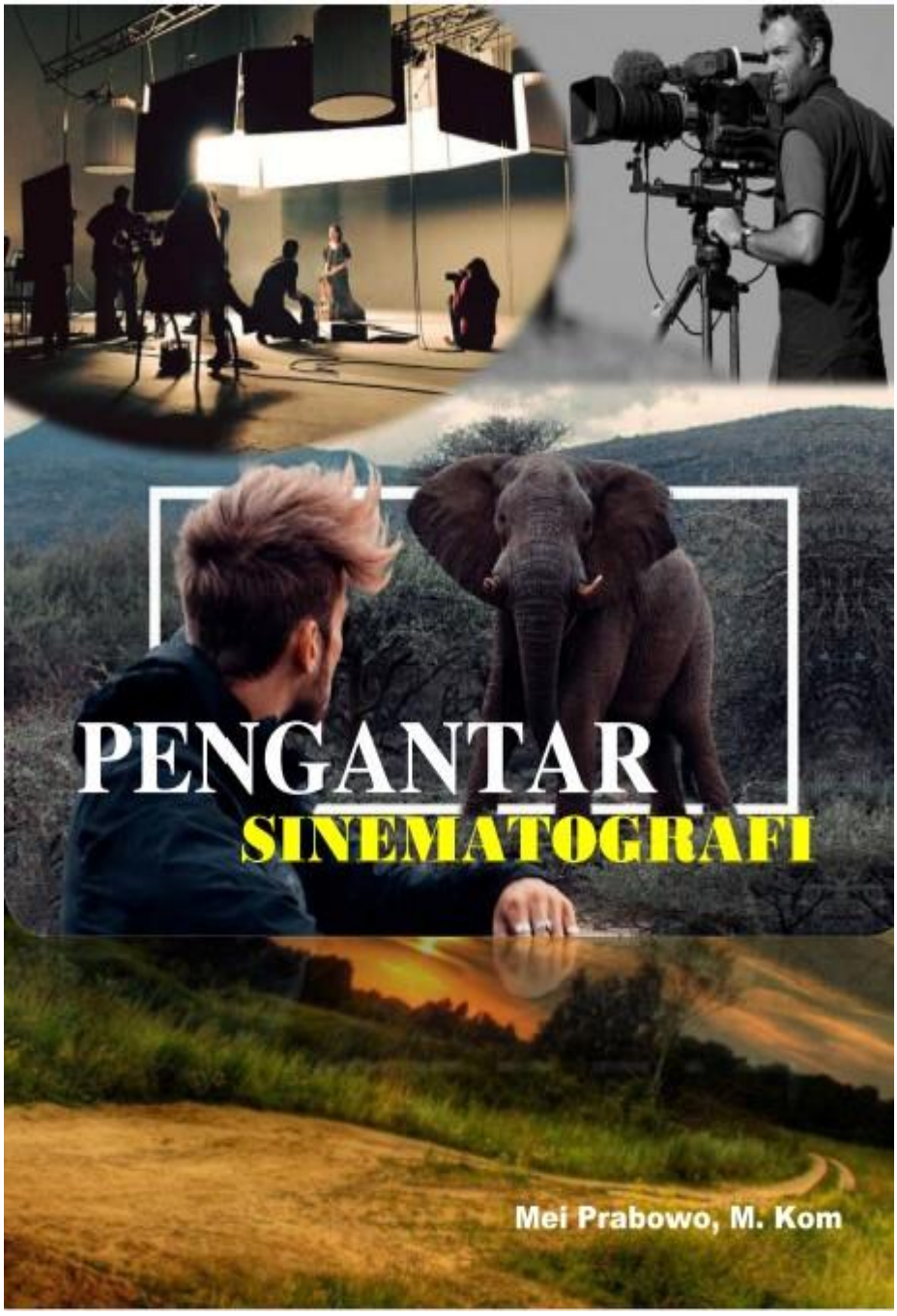

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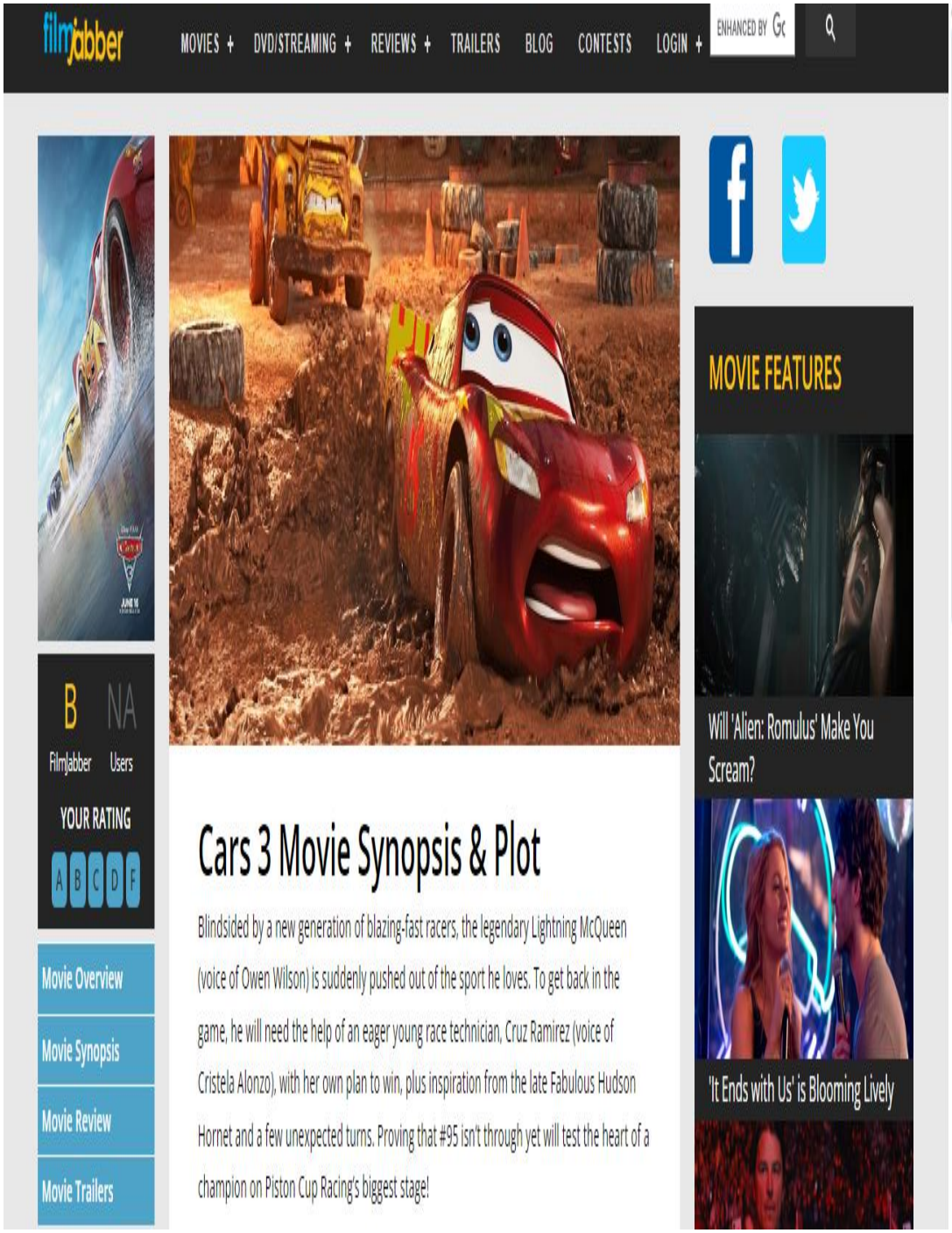

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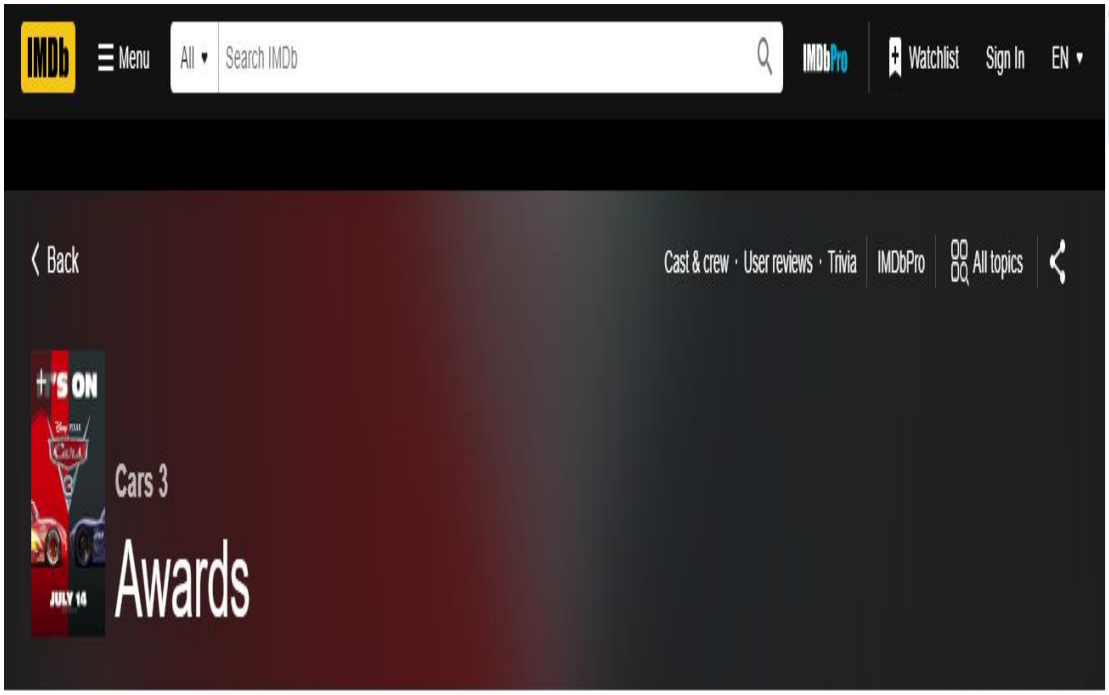

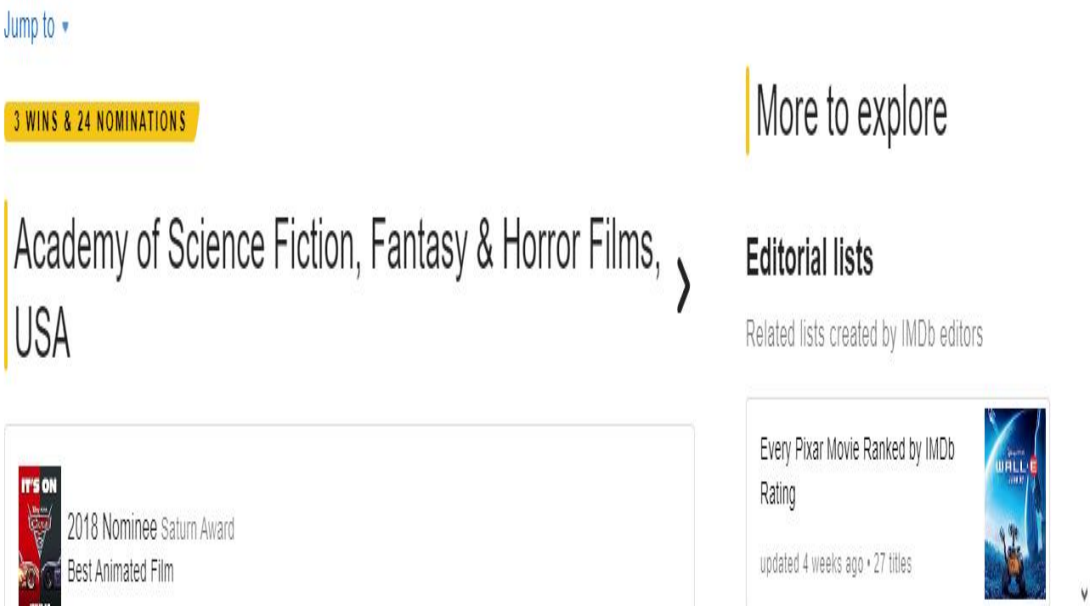

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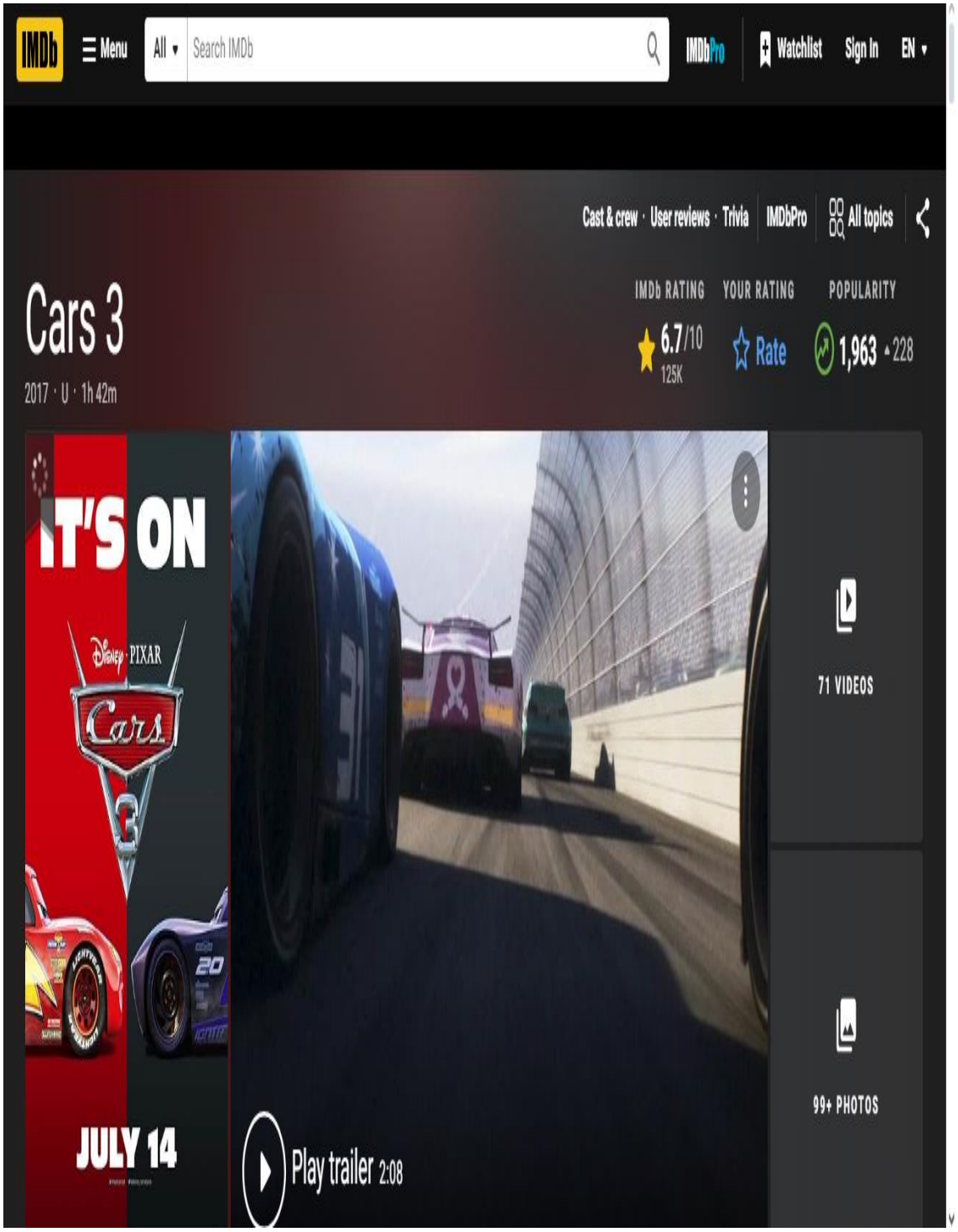

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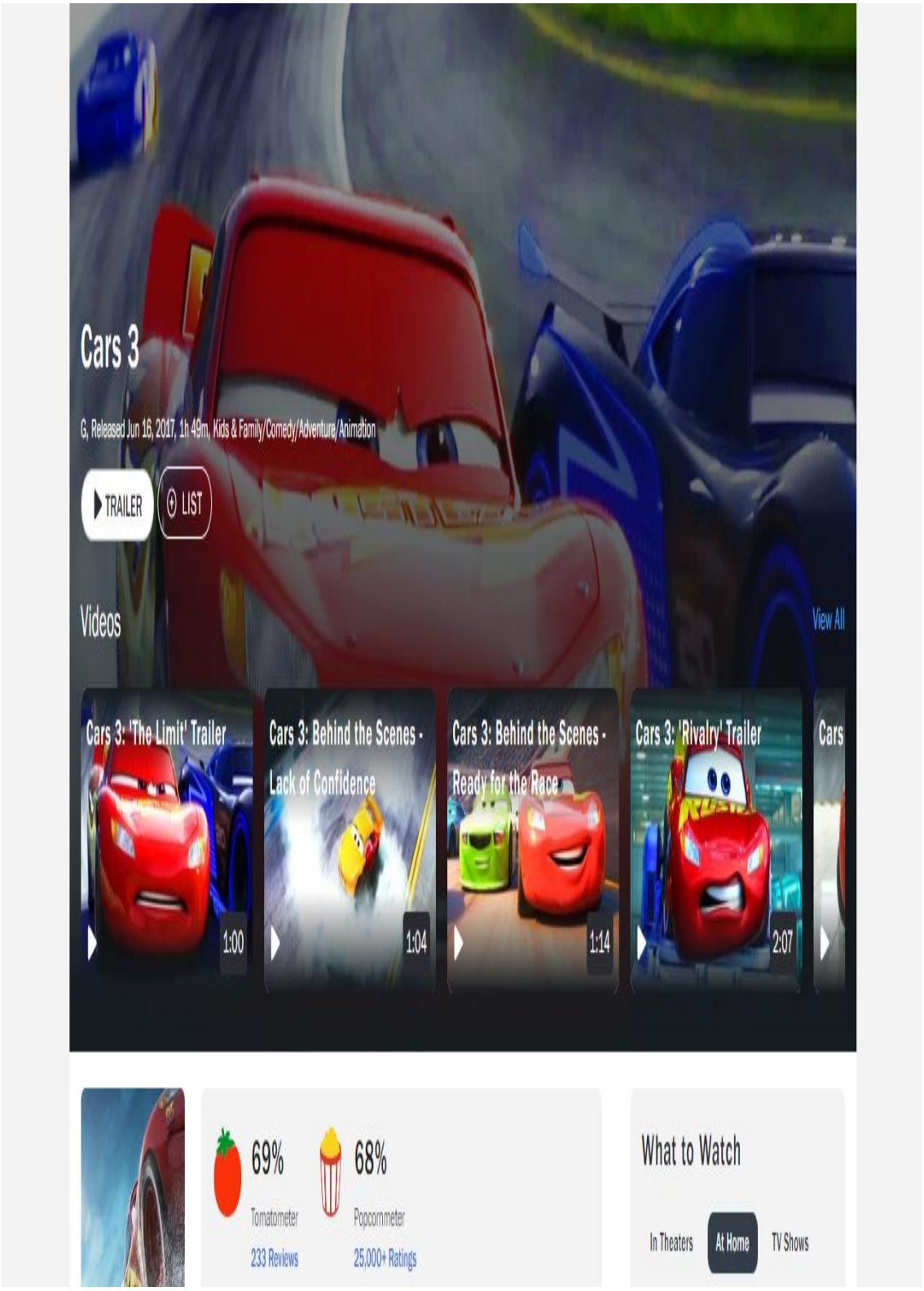

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Research Article

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Language Functions Used by The Main Characters of The Marriage Story Movie

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Abstract

People use different utterances by considering the social context in which communication takes place. An utterance may have more than one meaning and function depending on social context and other factors. This study aims to describe the spoken language functions of the main characters, Charlie and Nicole, in the *Marriage Story* movie. This descriptive qualitative research used Roman Jacobson's language function classification to categorize the selected utterances found in *Marriage Story* movie into one of the six functions (emotive, conative, referential, metalingual, phatic, and poetic). To interpret the classified data and the contexts or situations, I relate the language functions to social factors and social dimensions based on Holmes' categorization. The results show that all six language functions appeared in Nicole and Charlie's utterances. The data analysis depicts that emotive function is predominantly used by the main characters throughout the whole movie. Moreover, those language functions are influenced by social factors and social dimensions.

Keywords: language function; social factor; social dimension; *Marriage Story*.

1. Background of the Study

Marriage Story is a comedy-drama movie written, directed, and produced by Noah Baumbach, a New York writer-director. After its release on 29th August 2019 at Venice Film Festival, *Marriage Story* was transformed into digital streaming on 6th December 2019, chosen as one of nine best pictures of the year by the Academy Awards, receiving additional nods for best actor, actress, original screenplay, and original score. *Marriage Story* was starred Scarlett Johansson and Adam Driver as the main characters and other

Maharani, I, A, S., Wardhana, V, A, L. (2023). *Main Character's Speech Function Analysis in The "Turning Red" Movie. International Journal of Eduction, Language, Literature, Arts, Culture, and Social Humanities, 1(1), 79-84*. https://doi.org/10.59024/ijellacush.v1i1.160.

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Main Character's Speech Functions Analysis In The Movie "*Turning Red*"

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Abstract. *The study entitled "An Analysis of The Main Character's Speech Functions in The Movie "Turning Red"". It aims to identify the types of the speech functions and to find out the most prominent speech functions used by the main character named Meilin Lee. The research method used in this study is the qualitative method with the elaboration in the discussion. Furthermore, the analysis of this study used the theory proposed by Holmes (2013) which is the five of speech functions (expressive, directive, referential, metalinguistic, poetic, and phatic functions). The findings show that there are only three speech functions found in the movie Turning Red. They are the expressive function (17 cases), directive functions (34 cases), and phatic functions (26 cases). In addition, the most prominent speech functions used by the main character are the directive functions which serve thirty-four cases, followed by phatic that has twenty-six, and expressive that has only seventeen cases*

Keywords: *Movie, speech function, speech function analysis, Turning Red*

Abstrak. Studi yang berjudul "Analisis Fungsi Tuturan Karakter Utama dalam Film 'Turning Red'" bertujuan untuk mengidentifikasi jenis-jenis fungsi tuturan dan menemukan fungsi tuturan yang paling menonjol yang digunakan oleh karakter utama bernama Meilin Lee. Metode penelitian yang digunakan dalam studi ini adalah metode kualitatif dengan penjelasan dalam diskusi. Selanjutnya, analisis dari studi ini menggunakan teori yang diajukan oleh Holmes (2013) yang terdiri dari lima fungsi tuturan (fungsi ekspresif, direktif, referensial, metalinguistik, poetik, dan fatis). Temuan menunjukkan bahwa hanya terdapat tiga fungsi tuturan yang ditemukan dalam film Turning Red. Mereka adalah fungsi ekspresif (17 kasus), fungsi direktif (34 kasus), dan fungsi fatis (26 kasus). Selain itu, fungsi tuturan yang paling menonjol yang digunakan oleh karakter utama adalah fungsi direktif yang terjadi dalam tiga puluh empat kasus, diikuti oleh fungsi fatis yang terjadi dalam dua puluh enam kasus, dan fungsi ekspresif yang hanya terjadi dalam tujuh belas kasus.

Kata kunci: Analisis fungsi tuturan, film, fungsi tuturan, Turning Red

INTRODUCTION

Speech functions are under the sociolinguistic study. The study of sociolinguistics examines language in connection to social aspects such as gender, social groups, dialect, and so on. Sociolinguistics may be the key to understanding and delving further into what's going on in today's world between people and their own languages. There are numerous phenomena relating to language use and social life, such as language variety within communities, language

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THE ANALYSIS OF DIRECTIVE FUNCTION IN THE KELLEY ARMSTRONG'S NOVEL "THE AWAKENING"

A Thesis

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Sarjana Humaniora (S. Hum.) in English and Literature Department of Adab and Humanities Faculty of UIN Alauddin Makassar

BY

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ENGLISH AND LITERATURE DEPARTMENT

ADAB AND HUMANITIES FACULTY

ALAUDDIN STATE ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY OF MAKASSAR

2013

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

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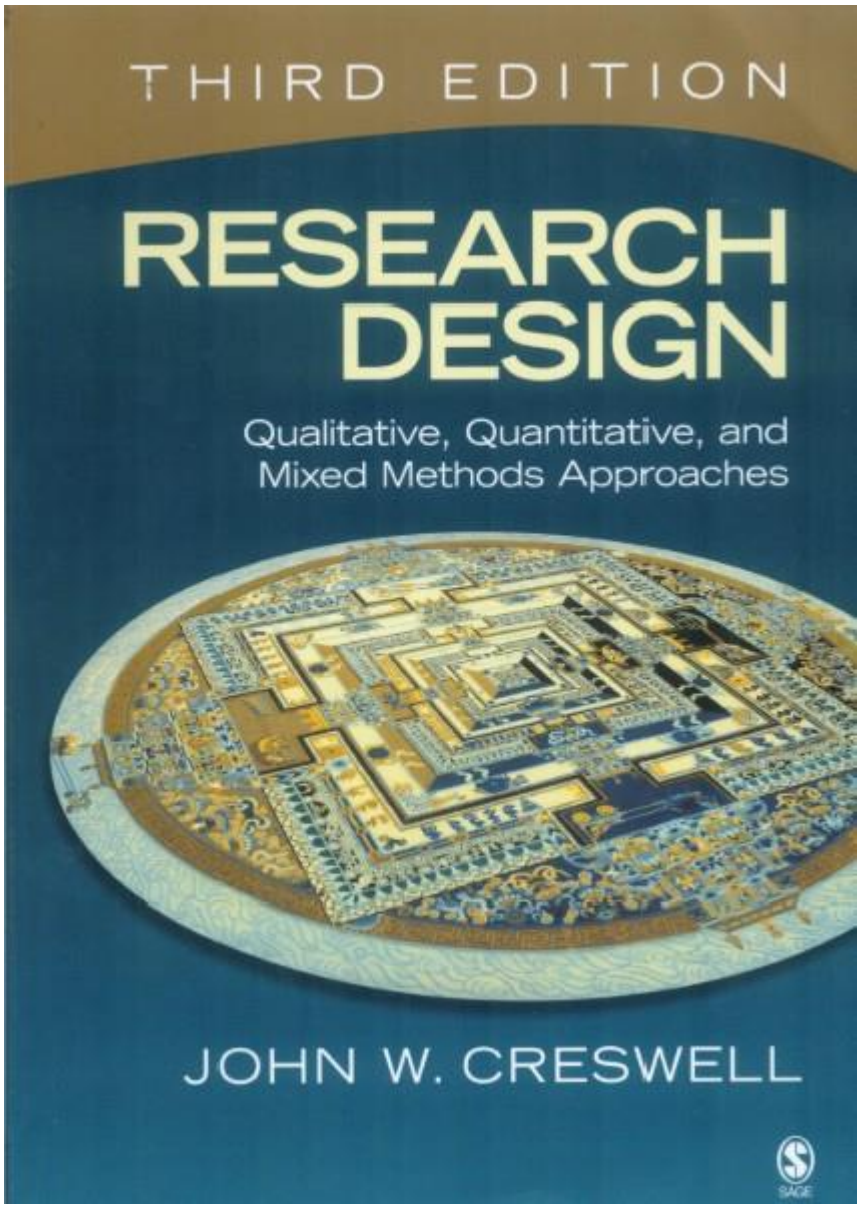

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types of research strategies used overall in the research (e.g., quantitative experiments or qualitative case studies), and the specific methods employed in conducting these strategies (e.g., collecting data quantitatively on instruments versus collecting qualitative data through observing a setting). Moreover, there is a historical evolution to both approaches, with the quantitative approaches dominating the forms of research in the social sciences from the late 19th century up until the mid-20th century. During the latter half of the 20th century, interest in qualitative research increased and along with it, the development of mixed methods research (see Creswell, 2008, for more of this history). With this background, it should prove helpful to view definitions of these three key terms as used in this book:

- **Qualitative research** is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's setting, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data. The final written report has a flexible structure. Those who engage in this form of inquiry support a way of looking at research that honors an inductive style, a focus on individual meaning, and the importance of rendering the complexity of a situation (adapted from Creswell, 2007).

- Discuss steps taken to gain entry to the setting and to secure permission to study the participants or situation (Marshall & Rossman, 2006). It is important to gain access to research or archival sites by seeking the approval of **gatekeepers**, individuals at the research site that provide access to the site and allow or permit the research to be done. A brief proposal might need to be developed and submitted for review by gatekeepers. Bogdan and Biklen (1992) advance topics that could be addressed in such a proposal:
  - Why was the site chosen for study?
  - What activities will occur at the site during the research study?
  - Will the study be disruptive?
  - How will the results be reported?
  - What will the gatekeeper gain from the study?
- Comment about sensitive ethical issues that may arise (see Chapter 3, and Berg, 2001). For each issue raised, discuss how the research study will address it. For example, when studying a sensitive topic, it is necessary to mask names of people, places, and activities. In this situation, the process for masking information requires discussion in the proposal.

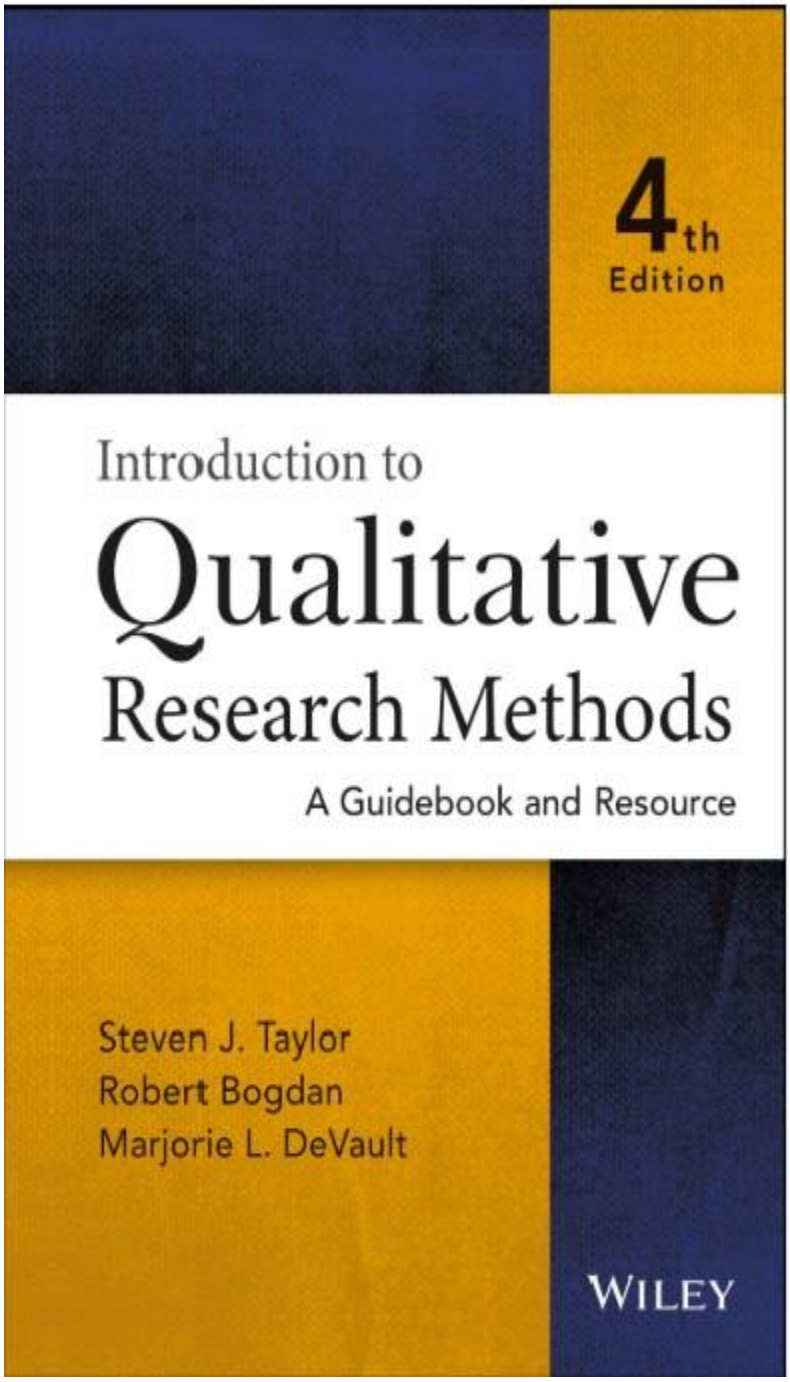
DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Comments about the role of the researcher set the stage for discussion of issues involved in collecting data. The data collection steps include setting the boundaries for the study, collecting information through unstructured or semistructured observations and interviews, documents, and visual materials, as well as establishing the protocol for recording information.

in the proposal that convey a sense of the overall activities of qualitative data analysis, such as the following drawn from my own thoughts (Creswell, 2007) and those of Rossman and Rallis (1998):

- It is an ongoing process involving continual reflection about the data, asking analytic questions, and writing memos throughout the study. I say that qualitative data analysis is conducted concurrently with gathering data, making interpretations, and writing reports. While interviews are going on, for example, the researcher may be analyzing an interview collected earlier, writing memos that may ultimately be included as a narrative in the final report, and organizing the structure of the final report.

Taylor, J, S., Bogdan, R., DeVault, L, M. (2016). *Introduction to Qualitative Research Methods A Guide Book and Resource*. Wiley.



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Paralleling the growing interest in qualitative research in sociology has been an increased acceptance of these methods in other disciplines and applied fields. Such diverse disciplines as geography (DeLyser, Herbert, Aitken, Crang, & McDowell, 2010; Hay, 2010), political science (McNabb, 2004), and psychology (Camic, Rhodes, & Yardley, 2003; Fischer, 2005; *Qualitative Research in Psychology*) have seen the publication of edited books, texts, and journals on qualitative research methods over the past decade and a half. The American Psychological Association started publishing the journal *Qualitative Psychology* in 2014. Qualitative methods have been used for program evaluation and policy research (Bogdan & Taylor, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1989; M. Q. Patton 1987, 2008, 2010, 2014; Rist 1994). Journals and texts on qualitative research can be found in such diverse applied areas of inquiry as health care and nursing (Latimer, 2003; Munhall, 2012; Streubert & Carpenter, 2010; *Qualitative Health Research*), mental health, counseling, and psychotherapy (Harper & Thompson, 2011; McLeod, 2011), education (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006; *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*; Lichtman, 2010; *Qualitative Research in Education*), music education (Conway, 2014), public health (Ulin, Robinson, & Tolley, 2005), business (Meyers, 2013), theology (Swinton & Mowat, 2006), disability studies (Ferguson et al., 1992), human development (Daly, 2007; Jessor, Colby, & Shweder, 1996), social work (Sherman & and Reid, 1994; *Qualitative Social Work*), and special education (Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

One does not have to be a sociologist or to think sociologically to practice qualitative research. Although we identify with a sociological tradition, qualitative approaches can be used in a broad range of disciplines and fields.

Just as significant as the increasing interest in qualitative research methods has been the proliferation of theoretical perspectives rooted in the phenomenological tradition underlying this form of inquiry. We consider the relationship between theory and methodology more fully later in this chapter.

QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY

The phrase *qualitative methodology* refers in the broadest sense to research that produces descriptive data—people's own written or spoken words and observable behavior. As Ray Rist (1977) pointed out, qualitative methodology, like quantitative methodology, is more than a set of data-gathering techniques. It is a way of approaching the empirical world. In this section we present our notion of qualitative research.

1. *Qualitative researchers are concerned with the meaning people attach to things in their lives.* Central to the phenomenological perspective and hence qualitative research is understanding people from their own frames of reference and

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Roimanson Panjaitan

Metodologi Penelitian

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Hal tersebut sekaligus menjelaskan mengapa penelitian kualitatif sering juga disebut dengan "penelitian naturalistik" karena penelitiannya dilakukan pada kondisi yang alamiah (natural setting); disebut pula sebagai metode etnografi karena pada awalnya metode penelitian ini lebih banyak digunakan untuk penelitian bidang antropologi budaya; dan disebut juga metode kualitatif karena data yang dikumpulkan dan dianalisis lebih bersifat kualitatif.[57]

Dari uraian di atas dapat dipahami bahwa penelitian kualitatif adalah penelitian yang sistematis yang digunakan untuk mengkaji atau meneliti suatu objek pada latar alamiah tanpa ada manipulasi di dalamnya dan tanpa ada pengujian hipotesis. Sehingga yang diharapkan bukanlah generalisasi berdasarkan ukuran-ukuran kuantitas, namun lebih kepada makna (kualitas) dari fenomena yang diamati. Itulah sebabnya terdapat perbedaan mendasar antara peran landasan teori dalam penelitian kuantitatif dengan penelitian kualitatif. Pada penelitian kuantitatif, pengamatan berkenaan dengan pengukuran tingkatan dengan suatu ciri tertentu. Namun, penelitian kualitatif menunjuk pada segi alamiah yang dipertentangkan dengan kuantum (jumlah).

Maksudnya, penelitian kualitatif tidak dimaksudkan untuk mengadakan perhitungan secara kuantitas. Sehingga jelas hal ini berbeda dengan penegamatan kuantitatif yang pengamatannya berdasarkan perhitungan persentase, rata-rata, *chi square*, dan

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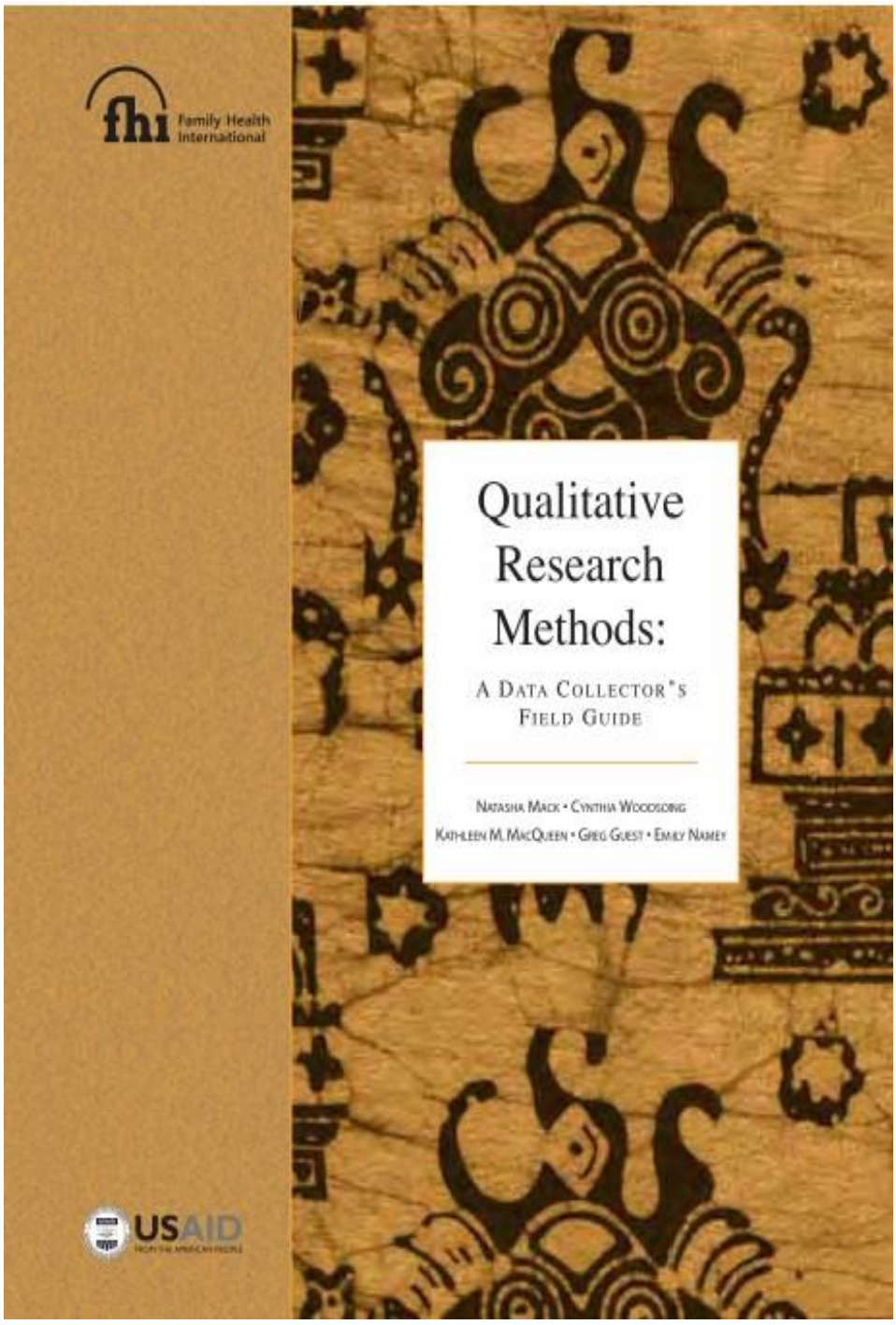
[57] Andi Prastowo, *Metode Penelitian Kualitatif Dalam Persfektif Rancangan Penelitian,* (Yogyakarta: Ar-Ruzz Media, 2011), hlm. 22 dan dapat juga dibaca pada tulisan Sugiyono, *Metode Penelitian Pendidikan Pendekatan Kuantitatif, Kualitatif, dan R&D,* (Bandung: Alfabeta, 2009), hlm. 14.

Mack, N., Woodsong, C., Macqueen, M, C., Guest, G., Namey, E. (2005). *Qualitative Researach Methods: A Data Collector's Field Guide*. Family Health International.



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issue may not be readily apparent. When used along with quantitative methods, qualitative research can help us to interpret and better understand the complex reality of a given situation and the irrplications of quantitative data.

Although findings from qualitative data can often be extended to people with characteristics similar to those in the study population, gaining a rich and complex understanding of a specific social context or phenomenon typically takes precedence over eliciting data that can be generalized to other geographical areas or populations. In this sense, qualitative research differs slightly from scientific research in general.

What are some qualitative research methods?

The three most common qualitative methods, explained in detail in their respective modules, are participant observation, in-depth interviews, and focus groups. Each method is particularly suited for obtaining a specific type of data.

- *Participant observation* is appropriate for collecting data on naturally occurring behaviors in their usual contexts.
- *In-depth interviews* are optimal for collecting data on individuals' personal histories, perspectives, and experiences, particularly when sensitive topics are being explored.
- *Focus groups* are effective in eliciting data on the cultural norms of a group and in generating broad overviews of issues of concern to the cultural groups or subgroups represented.

What forms do qualitative data take?

The types of data these three methods generate are field notes, audio (and sometimes video) recordings, and transcripts.

Comparing Quantitative and Qualitative Research

What are the basic differences between quantitative and qualitative research methods?

Quantitative and qualitative research methods differ primarily in:

- their analytical objectives
- the types of questions they pose
- the types of data collection instruments they use
- the forms of data they produce
- the degree of flexibility built into study design

Table 1, page 3, briefly outlines these major differences. For a more in-depth theoretical treatment of the differences between qualitative and quantitative research, we refer the reader to the suggested readings listed at the end of this chapter, especially Bernard 1995.

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J. Analisis Data

Analisis data adalah data yang sudah diolah sehingga hasil yang diperoleh mudah dimengerti oleh pembaca penelitian. Analisis data berupa infromasi hasil olah data, mengelompokan hasil dari pengolahan data, meringkas hasil olah data sehingga membentuk suatu kesimpulan penelitian.

1. Tahapan Analisis Data

Tahapan analisis data yaitu berupa pengumpulan data, kemudian pemberian skor, pembuatan coding agar data mudah untuk diolah, tabulasi data setelah itu data bisa diolah dan kemudian dianalisis deskriptif, dan inferensial. Proses analisis data, data yang diperoleh oleh peneliti haraus benar dan bisa dipercaya. Analisis data kuantitatif adalah penyederhanaan data. Jika kamu akan menganalisis data, maka berikut tahapannya:

a. Persiapan

Data yang sudah terkumpul disiapkan kemudian dicek kembali

b. Tabulasi

Tabulasi data jika penelitian dilakukan dengan cara kuesioner. Dengan mengumpulkan data yang sudah terkumpul bisa dengan disimpan dalam komputer pada aplikasi Excel, agar memudahkan dalam tabulasi data.

2. Teknik Analisis Data

Dalam teknik analisis data kuantitatif, biasanya menggunakan 2 cara statistik yaitu:

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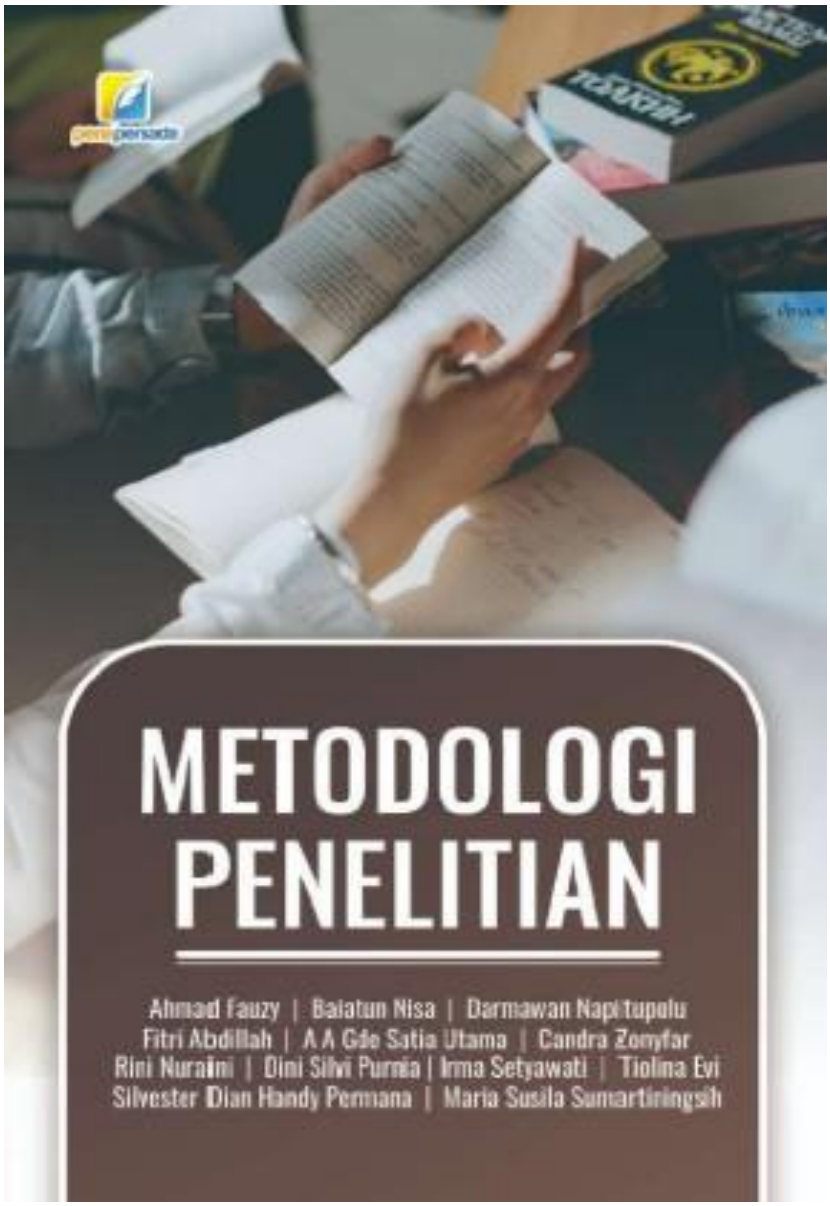

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serta rumusan hipotesis sebagai syarat data (Dr. Sandu Siyoto, SKM., 2015)

8.2 Teknik Analisi Data

Teknik Analisis Data merupkn tehnik atau cara untuk mengubah data menjadi informasi sehingga membentuk data yang punya karakter sehingga data yang dihasilkan lebih mudah di pahami dan di olah sehingg bisa digunakan untuk menemukan solusi dari masalah-masalah penelitin. (Dr.Didin Fatihudin, SE., 2015)

Analisis data juga bisa dimaksudkan sebagai Proses untuk merubah data hasil dari sebuah proses penelitian menjadi sebuah informasi yang bisa digunakan untuk mengambil sebuah keputusan dan kesimpulan (Solimun, Armanu, 2020)

Dalam satu penelitian ilmiah terdapat dua macam penelitian, yakni penelitian kualitatif dan penelitian kuantitatif, begitu pula untuk teknik analisa yaitu teknik analisis data kualitatif dan teknik analisis data kuantitatif

Berikut ini langkah-langkkah analisis data secara umum antara lain:

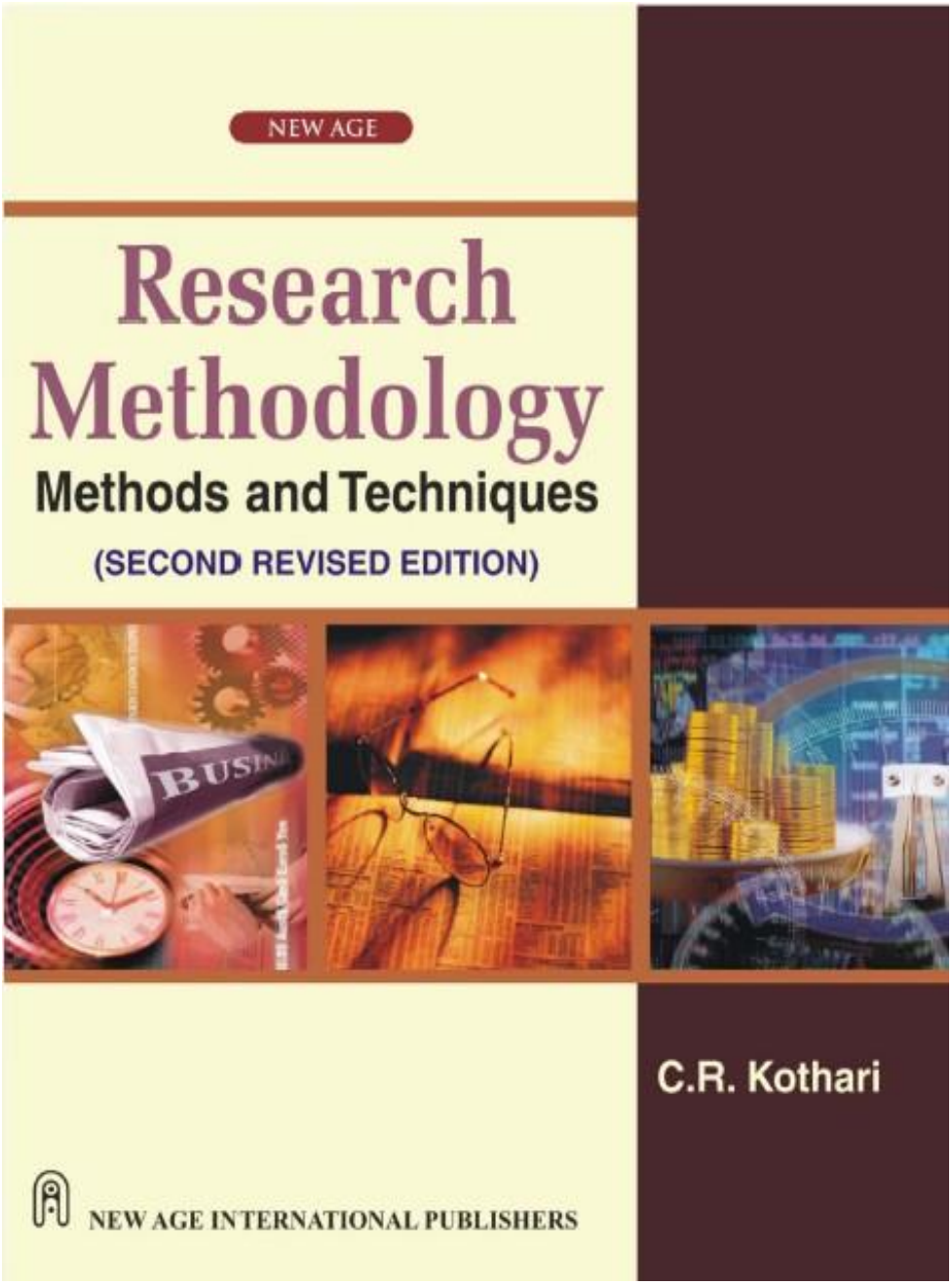
1. **Pengolahan Data**

   Langkah awal dari analisis data adalah Pengolahan data, ini dilakukan ntuk menyederhanakan data awal penelitin sehingga data yang dimiliki lebih mudah dipahami sehingga lebih siap dilakukan analisa.

   Beberapa tahap pengolahan data antara lain adalah:

   a. **Editing** adalah kegiatan yang dilakukan untuk memeriksa semua daftar pertanyaan dari responden.
   b. **Coding** adalah kegiatan Setelah proses editing data, kegiatan berikutnya yaitu memberikan simbol yang berupa angka terhadap jawaban responden.
   c. **Tabulating** adalah kegiatan untuk menghitung data dari hasil Coding, sehingga selanjutnya akan ditampilkan dalam wujud tabel.

Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. New Age International Publisher.



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6

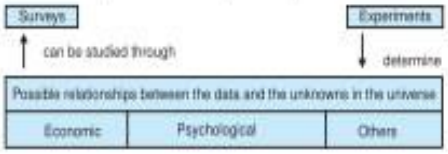
Methods of Data Collection

The task of data collection begins after a research problem has been defined and research design/ plan chalked out. While deciding about the method of data collection to be used for the study, the researcher should keep in mind two types of data viz., primary and secondary. The *primary data* are those which are collected afresh and for the first time, and thus happen to be original in character. The *secondary data*, on the other hand, are those which have already been collected by someone else and which have already been passed through the statistical process. The researcher would have to decide which sort of data he would be using (thus collecting) for his study and accordingly he will have to select one or the other method of data collection. The methods of collecting primary and secondary data differ since primary data are to be originally collected, while in case of secondary data the nature of data collection work is merely that of compilation. We describe the different methods of data collection, with the pros and cons of each method.

COLLECTION OF PRIMARY DATA

We collect primary data during the course of doing experiments in an experimental research but in case we do research of the descriptive type and perform surveys, whether sample surveys or census surveys, then we can obtain primary data either through observation or through direct communication with respondents in one form or another or through personal interviews.* This, in other words, means

* An experiment refers to an investigation in which a factor or variable under test is isolated and its effect(s) measured. In an experiment the investigator measures the effects of an experiment which he conducts intentionally. Survey refers to the method of securing information concerning a phenomena under study from all or a selected number of respondents of the concerned universe. In a survey, the investigator examines those phenomena which exist in the universe independent of his action. The difference between an experiment and a survey can be depicted as under:



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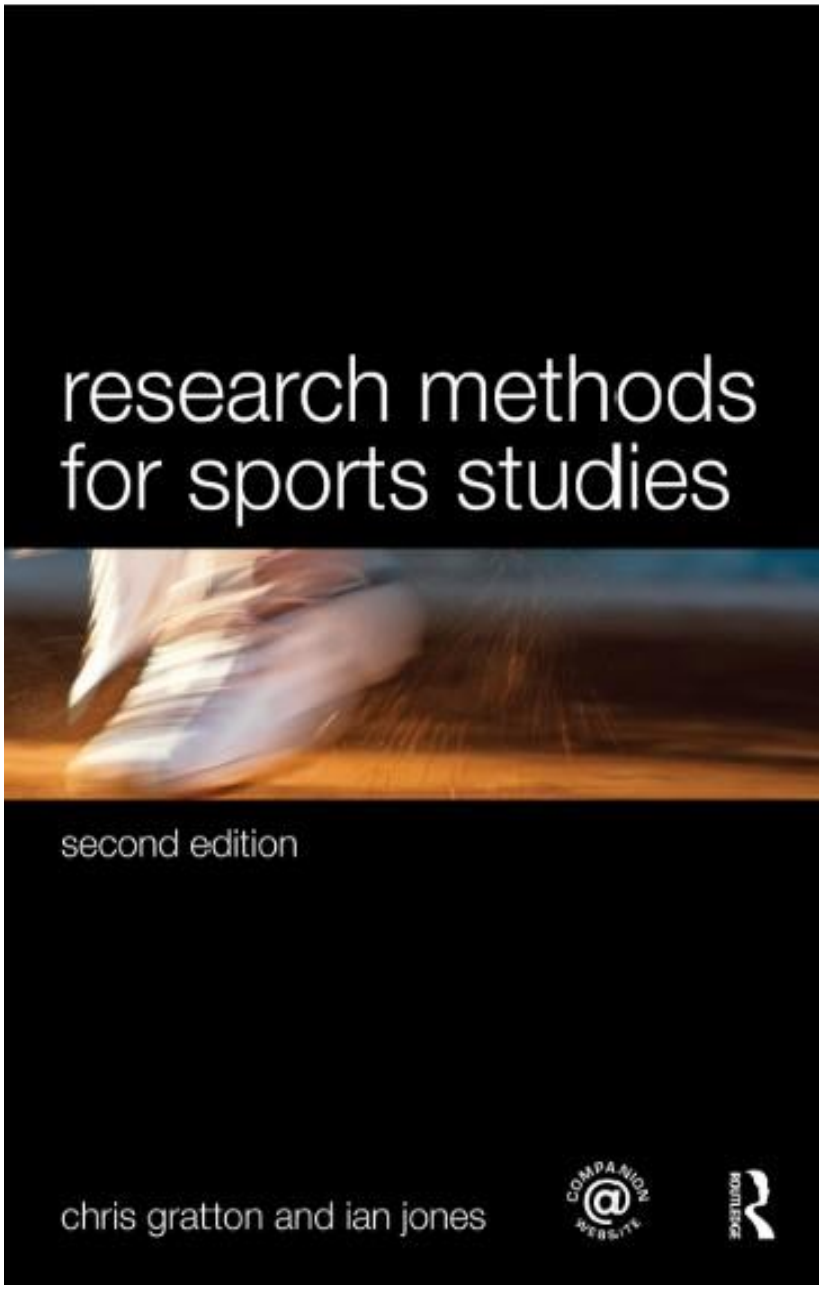

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be followed by further research that applies any findings to a 'real life situation'. In reality, however, research that leans towards the 'pure' tends to be more common in 'academic' circles. Even this research may, however, have future practical value in terms of its application by others provided it is not written in a way that alienates it from those who may find the results useful (Ingham and Donnelly 1992).

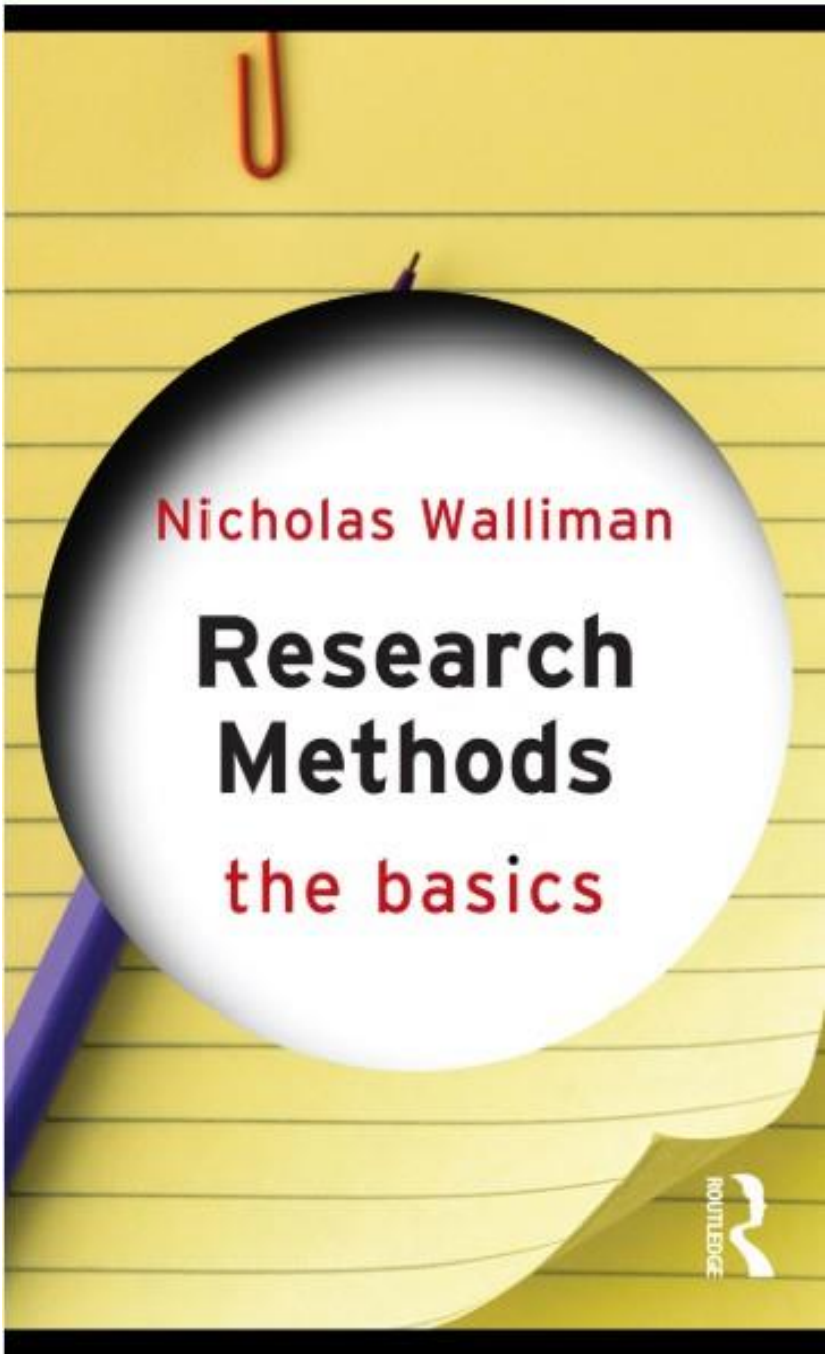
PRIMARY AND SECONDARY RESEARCH

There is also a distinction that can be made between *primary* and *secondary* research. Primary research generally refers to research that has involved the collection of original data specific to that particular research project, for example through using research methods such as questionnaires or interviews. Secondary research refers to research where no such original data is collected, but the research project uses existing (or secondary) sources of data, for example census or archive data. Most research projects will contain an element of secondary research in establishing and evaluating the types of data that have been collected in previous research projects in the area as part of the literature review (see Chapter 5).

THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

We can also distinguish between *theoretical* and *empirical* research. Theoretical research generally uses the findings from existing works to develop new ideas through analysing existing theory and explanations. These new ideas are not tested through collecting evidence in the form of primary data. Empirical research, on the other hand, supports the development of new ideas through the collection of data (empirical means based upon observation or measurement rather than theoretical reasoning). Thus, a researcher who develops a theory of sport fan violence through visiting a library and developing their own explanation through reading existing work will be undertaking theoretical research. The researcher who takes this one step further and collects data to test their explanation will be undertaking empirical research. Although theoretical research has its merits, we would suggest that you should – if at all possible – support your findings empirically through the collection of primary data.

Walliman, N. (2011). *Research Methods the Basics*. Rouletdge.



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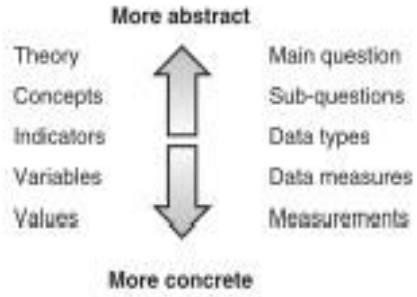

Figure 6.1 Diagram of levels of abstraction

spectrum, move to the more concrete during the investigation, and return to the abstract in the conclusions. Data that can be manipulated, measured and analysed tends to be more at the values level, but in many subjects in the humanities and social sciences, the variables may be difficult or even impossible to measure with precise values.

You can relate these levels of abstraction to how to structure your research. Your title and main research question will be expressed at a theoretical level, and your sub-questions will be about the separate concepts. In order to investigate these, you will need to find out what type of measures can be used to assess the existence and scale of the concepts, then the scales that can be used in the measures, i.e. the type of measurements, and finally the actual measurements that provide the basic data for analysis. Figure 6.1 provides a simple diagram to illustrate the levels of abstraction in your research structure.

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY DATA

Data come in two main forms, depending on its closeness to the event recorded. Data that has been observed, experienced or recorded close to the event are the nearest one can get to the truth, and are called **primary data**. Written sources that interpret or record primary data are called **secondary sources** which tend to be less reliable. For example, reading about a fire in your own house in the newspaper a day after will

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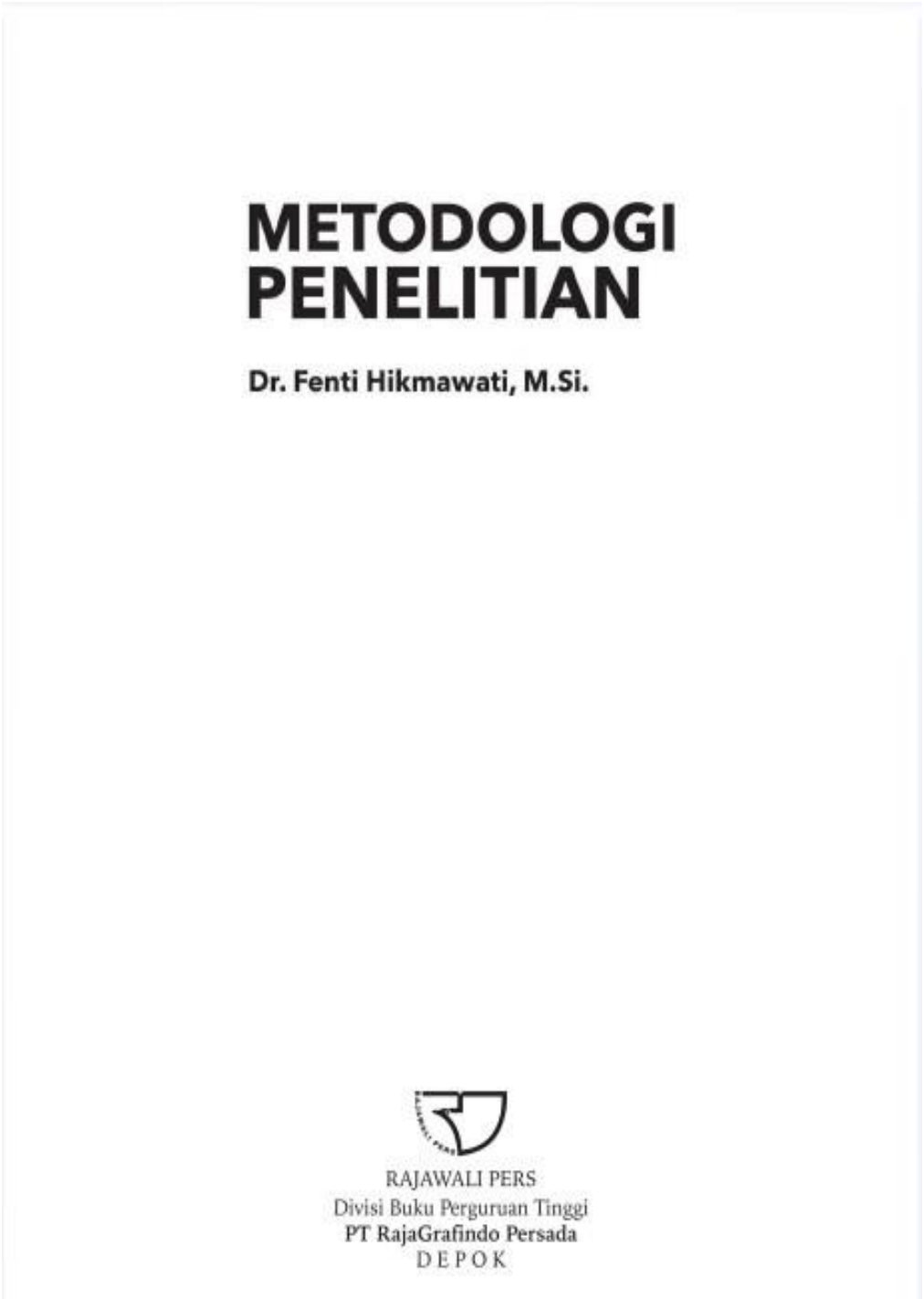

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j. Bahasa Ilmiah

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k. Matematika

Matematika adalah pengetahuan sebagai sarana berpikir deduktif, bersifat kuantitatif, jelas, spesifik dan informatif, tidak menimbulkan konotasi emosional.

l. Statistika

Statistika ialah pengetahuan sebagai sarana berpikir induktif, sifatnya dapat digunakan untuk menguji tingkat ketelitian dan untuk menentukan hubungan kausalitas antar faktor terkait.

m. Aksiologi (Nilai Guna Ilmu)

Aksiologi ialah menyangkut masalah nilai kegunaan ilmu. Ilmu tidak bebas nilai. Artinya pada tahap-tahap tertentu kadang ilmu harus disesuaikan dengan nilai-nilai budaya dan moral suatu masyarakat, sehingga nilai kegunaan ilmu tersebut dapat dirasakan oleh masyarakat dalam usahanya meningkatkan kesejahteraan bersama, bukan sebaliknya malahan menimbulkan bencana.

2. Prosedur Penelitian

> *Research is a systematic attempt to provide answers to questions. Such answer may be abstract and general as is often the case in basic research or they maybe highly concrete and specific as is often the case in applied research.* (Tuckman 1978:1)

Berdasarkan definisi yang dikemukakan Tuckman (1978:1), secara sederhana dapat dikatakan bahwa penelitian merupakan cara-cara yang sistematis untuk menjawab masalah yang sedang diteliti. Kata sistematis merupakan kata kunci yang berkaitan dengan metode ilmiah yang berarti adanya prosedur yang ditandai dengan keteraturan dan ketuntasan. Secara lebih detail Davis (1985) memberikan karakteristik suatu metode ilmiah sebagai berikut: ***Pertama,*** metode harus bersifat